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I. THE Croonian Lecture. On the Structure and Uses of the Membrana Tympani of the Ear. By Everard Home, Esq. F. R. S.'

The great object of this paper is to communicate a discovery respecting the nature of the membrana tympani; yet we cannot assign to it a very high value, as the principal consequence drawn from it seems, from a subsequent paper, to be fallacious. The tympanum has been usually considered as a membrane, but our author examining it in the elephant has found it fibrous, the fibres converging from the circumference to the centre, where the tympanum is united to the handle of the malleus. It is a little singular, that he has not noticed the ephelion from the Eustachian tube, and a similar membrane from the meatus externus over the proper membrane, on each surface, and that where he could not naturally distinguish fibres, he had not attempted to condense them by heat. It may be admitted, however, that the drum of the ear is fibrous and muscular, without any central tendon, and with its due proportion of vessels; but it is not easy to say what should be the consequence. The action of these fibres will undoubtedly straighten the membrane, and make it more sensible. This action may aid that of the muscles of the malleus, but will not supersede their use. In the following account of the utility of these fibres, our author apparently confounds the influence of the muscles of the malleus with the contraction of the fibril radiations.

'From the explanation given of the adjustment of the membrana tympani, the difference between a musical ear and one which is too imperfect to distinguish the different notes in music, will appear to arise entirely from the greater or less nicety with which the muscle of the malleus renders the membrane capable of being truly adjusted. If the tension be perfect, all the variations produced by

the action of the radiated muscle will be equally correct, and the ear truly musical; but, if the first adjustment is imperfect, although the actions of the radiated muscle may still produce infinite variations, none of them will be correct: the effect, in this respect, will be similar to that produced by playing upon a musical instrument which is not in tune. The hearing of articulate sounds requires less nicety in the adjustment, than of inarticulate or musical ones: an ear may therefore be able to perceive the one, although it is not fitted to receive distinct perceptions from the other.

‘ The nicety or correctness of a musical ear being the result of muscular action, renders it, in part, an acquirement; for, although the original formation of these muscles in some ears renders them more capable of arriving at this perfection in their action, early cultivation is still necessary for that purpose; and it is found that an ear, which upon the first trials seemed unfit to receive accurate perceptions of sounds, shall, by early and constant application, be rendered tolerably correct, but never can attain excellence. There are organs of hearing in which the parts are so nicely adjusted to one another, as to render them capable of a degree of correctness in hearing sounds which appears preternatural.

‘ Children who during their infancy are much in the society of musical performers, will be naturally induced to attend more to inarticulate sounds than articulate ones, and by these means acquire a correct ear, which, after listening for two or three years to articulate sounds only, would have been attained with more difficulty.

‘ This mode of adapting the ear to different sounds, appears to be one of the most beautiful applications of muscles in the body; the mechanism is so simple, and the variety of effects so great.

‘ Several ways in which the correctness of hearing is affected by the wrong actions of the muscles of the tympanum, that appeared to be inexplicable, can be readily accounted for, now that the means by which the membrane adjusts itself are understood.’
P. 12.

We must confess that the whole of this reasoning will suit as well the action of the muscles of the malleus as of the fibres of the drum; but our author's cases, which we cannot transcribe, are curious and well explained, though they might be equally so on the common system. It is singular that he has overlooked the use of the cochlea, which is filled with water, while it is now known that water is an infinitely better medium of sound than air. Fishes have it not, because the impression is conveyed through water: birds have it, because the sensibility of the ear is kept constantly on the extreme, by the handle of the malleus forcing the tympanum to a convex form. The notes adapted for birds, and consequently their own notes, must therefore be acute, their compass limited, and their intervals small. In the elephant, which hears most sensibly, all

the parts are large and perfect, and the organ of hearing extends beyond the cochleæ, between the tables of the skull communicating from each side. Thus the head is *all* ear, as in birds the hollow part of the osseous system is a part of the lungs. On the whole, though we think our author's system unfounded; his paper is extremely valuable, as a collection of facts relating to the ear in man and various animals. We must, however, now step forward to

' Art. VIII. Observations on the Effects which take Place from the Destruction of the Membrana Tympani of the Ear. By Mr. Astley Cooper. In a Letter to Everard Home, Esq. F. R. S. by whom some Remarks are added.'

In the instance related by Mr. Cooper, the gentleman who had a defect of the tympanum on one side, and the membrane or muscle incomplete on the other, had a correct musical ear, played with accuracy and taste, and sung in tune. The only defect was, that he could hear at only about two-thirds of the usual distance. He felt also the sensation of the 'teeth being on edge,' which has been attributed to the vicinity of the chorda tympani, but which Mr. Cooper attributes, with more reason, to the effect of sounds on the nerve lining the labyrinth of the ear, which would convey the impression to the portio dura of the same nerve, and of course to the teeth. Yet there is a little ambiguity on this subject. Haller has said, that those in whom the tympanum is broken are at first hard of hearing, and afterwards become deaf. This is not consonant to the usual effects of deprivations; for nature rather exerts accessory motions to supply the deficiency, as in the case before us, where the external ear became moveable; and we remember an observation of Dr. Monro on the scholars of Mr. Braidwood's academy for teaching the deaf and dumb, that in every one examined by him, there were scarcely any traces of the membrana tympani. We think, therefore, with our author, that, in Haller's experiments, the injury was carried farther; and, in Mr. Braidwood's scholars, there may have been other defects, besides the absence of the tympanum. Perhaps, as Mr. Cooper alleges, the drum may be designed to modulate, rather than convey sounds, and, when absent, its use may be supplied by the fenestra ovalis and rotunda. It is remarkable, that Mr. Home, in his observations on this paper, does not notice the accurately musical ear which Mr. Cooper's friend possessed.

' II. On the Method of determining, from the real Probabilities of Life, the Values of Contingent Reversions in which three Lives are involved in the Survivorship. By William Morgan, Esq. F. R. S.'

This is connected with former papers 'On Contingent Reversions,' and is incapable of abridgement.

'III. Abstract of a Register of the Barometer, Thermometer, and Rain, at Lyndon, in Rutland, for the Year 1798. By Thomas Barker, Esq.'

The barometer ranged from 30.19; its height in February, to 28.21, which occurred in November; the thermometer from 84° to $5\frac{1}{2}$. But we see evidently the effects of reflected heat in the afternoon observations, and the very low point in December was but for a short time; the next lowest was 13° . The mean heat of April was $51^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$; the rain was 21.935.

'IV. On the Power of penetrating into Space by Telescopes; with a comparative Determination of the Extent of that Power in natural Vision, and in Telescopes of various Sizes and Constructions; illustrated by select Observations. By William Herschel, LL. D. F. R. S.'

This is a paper of singular curiosity, truly carrying us 'beyond this visible diurnal sphere.' We must, however, first except against the conclusion from our author's experiment, that light is transparent. The successive candles only prevented the rays from the first being lost, and thus rendered their effects more striking.

It is difficult to separate our author's reasoning from his algebraical language, yet we shall endeavour to do it, though, by rendering his observations more intelligible, we may lose somewhat of their extraordinary accuracy. Optical writers have proved that an object is equally bright at all distances. This, our author properly observes, is true only of its 'intrinsic' brightness, not of its 'absolute' brightness, or the absolute quantity of light emitted; for, as he remarks, the sun to an observer in Saturn is intrinsically as bright as to us, but it appears 100 times less, and is therefore 100 times less absolutely bright. This distinction must be kept in view through the whole paper. The same holds good in stars: their absolute brightness is in the inverse ratio of the squares of their distance, so that stars which are seven or eight times farther from us than Sirius, cannot be seen by the naked eye, and this is confirmed by observation.

It is surprising that we should see reflected light at the distance of the Georgium Sidus, which is 1800 millions of miles, when, by distance and reflection, it must be 368 times less intense than with us; but self-luminous bodies are seen at a much greater distance; for the nearest fixed star is more than 400,000 times farther from us than the sun. If we suppose the stars of the second magnitude at twice the distance of those of the first, the difference of light appears, by algebraical analysis, not proportionally less. Thus the difference between

the light of Sirius and β Tauri, a star of the second magnitude, is not more than as 4 to 1; while that between the former and the sun is as 170,000 millions to 1. The next difference between stars of the second and third magnitude is only as $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 1; that between stars of the sixth and seventh magnitude only as $1\frac{1}{3}$ to 1. With the naked eye, and with objects of no greater brightness than stars, we cannot probably penetrate farther into space; but clusters of stars, which form nebulae, are seen at a still greater distance.

Our author next examines what further assistance telescopes can be expected to give. Some light must be lost by passing through the glasses. In his best telescope, not above .63 of the rays reach the eye: in a Newtonian reflector, with a *double* eye-glass, not many more than .40. On examination, with one of our author's twenty-feet Newtonian reflectors, made in 1776, he found that, with its assistance, he could penetrate thirty-nine times farther into space than with the naked eye. In this case, the *absolute* not the *intrinsic* brightness is increased. This leads Mr. Herschel to the distinction between magnifying and penetrating power, the latter of which only is possessed by the night-glasses, which penetrate six or seven times farther than the natural eye; and the great advantages of our author's telescopes arise from their combining the penetrating and magnifying power. Various instances of the utility of occasionally increasing the one or other of these powers are subjoined, which can only be read with advantage in his own words. In some circumstances, however, these powers interfere with each other; and even the magnifying power has its maximum, since, by extending it too far, obscurity ensues from magnifying the medium. In some nights, when the air is full of vapour, but not in the vesicular state, there are scarcely any limits to the magnifying power. The penetrating power may also, in our author's opinion, be greatly extended. His forty-feet reflector advances to 191.69, but he thinks it possible to extend this power so far as 500. Even with his reflector, allowing a star of the seventh magnitude to be visible to the unassisted eye, this telescope will show stars of the 1342d magnitude; but, when assisted by the united lustre of sidereal systems, it will penetrate $11\frac{3}{4}$ millions of millions of miles, exceeding 300,000 times the distance of the nearest fixed star! The range of such a telescope must be of course extensive beyond imagination, and to examine these immense distances there are few favourable hours. Mr. Herschel, from his journal, thinks that a year, which affords 90 or 100 of these hours, is very productive; and to 'sweep the heavens' with his twenty-feet reflector, would require $14\frac{3}{4}$ of such productive years; and, with the forty-feet reflector, with the power of 1000, it will require 598 of such

years, leaving so much of the southern hemisphere as will require 213 years more, allowing only one single moment to look into each part of space.

‘ V. A second Appendix to the improved Solution of a Problem in physical Astronomy, inserted in the *Philosophical Transactions for the Year 1798*, containing some further Remarks, and improved Formulæ for computing the Coefficients A and B; by which the arithmetical Work is considerably shortened and facilitated. By the Rev. John Hellins, B. D. F. R. S. and Vicar of Potter’s Pury, in Northamptonshire.’

This excellent paper can only be examined with advantage in the volume.

‘ VI. Account of a Peculiarity in the Distribution of the Arteries sent to the Limbs of slow-moving Animals; together with some other similar Facts. In a Letter from Mr. Anthony Carlisle, Surgeon, to John Symmons, Esq. F. R. S.’

The distribution of the blood-vessels, except in the superior and inferior extremities, offers nothing very striking; but, in these, the artery is divided at once into very many cylindrical branches, which often anastomose. The final cause of this singular arrangement is not clear. Our author thinks it is connected with the power the animal has of keeping itself, for a long time, suspended; in other words, that it assists the muscles in preserving their permanent contraction, without alternate relaxation. It seems more probably designed to prevent obstructions, in consequence of the continued action of the muscles, or their slow motion; for, in the more active bradypus, the *B. tridactylus*, the division is much less minute.

‘ VII. Outlines of Experiments and Inquiries respecting Sound and Light. By Thomas Young, M. D. F. R. S. In a Letter to Edward Whitaker Gray, M. D. Sec. R. S.’

As the completion of Dr. Young’s pursuits on this subject is yet at a distance, he has here published some of his conclusions, lest, from accident, he may not be able to continue the inquiry. The subjects are,

‘ I. The measurement of the quantity of air discharged through an aperture. II. The determination of the direction and velocity of a stream of air proceeding from an orifice. III. Ocular evidence of the nature of sound. IV. The velocity of sound. V. Sonorous cavities. VI. The degree of divergence of sound. VII. The decay of sound. VIII. The harmonic sounds of pipes. IX. The vibrations of different elastic fluids. X. The analogy between light and sound. XI. The coalescence of musical sounds. XII. The frequency of vibrations constituting a given note. XIII. The vibrations of chords. XIV. The vibrations of rods and plates. XV. The human voice. XVI. The temperament of musical intervals.’ P. 106.

It is impossible to follow minutely experiments reduced to the form of tables, and disquisitions, which contain a large portion of mathematical reasoning, and frequent reference to plates. We shall, therefore, only notice a few of the most striking or important passages, which do not require such assistance.

On the subject of sonorous cavities, our author confirms the observation of de la Grange, that sounds are reflected with a velocity equal to that of their impulse. When the walls of an unfurnished narrow room are parallel and smooth, sound is reflected from one to the other side, and it takes place, as frequently in a second, as double the breadth of the room is contained in 1130 feet. The appropriate notes of a room may be ascertained by singing the scale in it, and will be found to depend on the proportion of its length or breadth, to 1130 feet.

He opposes the idea of the divergence of sound, with great justice. It is only surprising that this opinion has prevailed so long. Sound, he thinks, decays in the duplicate ratio of the distance, and, of course, the proposal of the improved form of the speaking trumpet, to represent the logarithmic curve, is fallacious. In the tenth section, on the analogy between light and sound, Dr. Young offers some remarks in favour of Euler's system of light being propagated by an ethereal medium.

There are also one or two difficulties in the Newtonian system, which have been little observed. The first is, the uniform velocity with which light is supposed to be projected from all luminous bodies, in consequence of heat, or otherwise. How happens it that, whether the projecting force is the slightest transmission of electricity, the friction of two pebbles, the lowest degree of visible ignition, the white heat of a wind furnace, or the intense heat of the sun itself, these wonderful corpuscles are always propelled with one uniform velocity? For, if they differed in velocity, that difference ought to produce a different refraction. But a still more insuperable difficulty seems to occur, in the partial reflection from every refracting surface. Why, of the same kind of rays, in every circumstance precisely similar, some should always be reflected, and others transmitted, appears in this system to be wholly inexplicable. That a medium resembling, in many properties, that which has been denominated ether, does really exist, is undeniably proved by the phenomena of electricity; and the arguments against the existence of such an ether throughout the universe, have been pretty sufficiently answered by Euler. The rapid transmission of the electrical shock shows that the electrical medium is possessed of an elasticity as great as is necessary to be supposed for the propagation of light. Whether the electric ether is to be considered as the same with the luminous ether, if such a fluid exists, may perhaps at some future time be discovered by experiment; hitherto I have not been able to

observe that the refractive power of a fluid undergoes any change by electricity. The uniformity of the motion of light in the same medium, which is a difficulty in the Newtonian theory, favours the admission of the Huygenian; as all impressions are known to be transmitted through an elastic fluid with the same velocity. It has been already shown, that sound, in all probability, has very little tendency to diverge: in a medium so highly elastic as the luminous ether must be supposed to be, the tendency to diverge may be considered as infinitely small, and the grand objection to the system of vibration will be removed. It is not absolutely certain, that the white line visible in all directions on the edge of a knife, in the experiments of Newton and of Mr. Jordan, was not partly occasioned by the tendency of light to diverge. Euler's hypothesis, of the transmission of light by an agitation of the particles of the refracting media themselves, is liable to strong objections; according to this supposition, the refraction of the rays of light, on entering the atmosphere from the pure ether which he describes, ought to be a million times greater than it is. For explaining the phaenomena of partial and total reflection, refraction, and inflection, nothing more is necessary than to suppose all refracting media to retain, by their attraction, a greater or less quantity of the luminous ether, so as to make its density greater than that which it possesses in a vacuum, without increasing its elasticity; and that light is a propagation of an impulse communicated to this ether by luminous bodies: whether this impulse is produced by a partial emanation of the ether, or by vibrations of the particles of the body, and whether these vibrations are, as Euler supposed, of various and irregular magnitudes, or whether they are uniform, and comparatively large, remains to be hereafter determined. Now, as the direction of an impulse transmitted through a fluid, depends on that of the particles in synchronous motion, to which it is always perpendicular, whatever alters the direction of the pulse, will inflect the ray of light. If a smaller elastic body strike against a larger one, it is well known that the smaller is reflected more or less powerfully, according to the difference of their magnitudes: thus, there is always a reflection when the rays of light pass from a rarer to a denser stratum of ether; and frequently an echo when a sound strikes against a cloud. A greater body striking a smaller one, propels it, without losing all its motion: thus, the particles of a denser stratum of ether do not impart the whole of their motion to a rarer, but, in their effort to proceed, they are recalled by the attraction of the refracting substance with equal force; and thus a reflection is always secondarily produced, when the rays of light pass from a denser to a rarer stratum.

P. 125.

* It has already been conjectured by Euler, that the colours of light consist in the different frequency of the vibrations of the luminous ether: it does not appear that he has supported this opinion

by any argument; but it is strongly confirmed, by the analogy between the colours of a thin plate and the sounds of a series of organ-pipes. The phænomena of the colours of thin plates require, in the Newtonian system, a very complicated supposition, of an ether, anticipating by its motion the velocity of the corpuscles of light, and thus producing the fits of transmission and reflection; and even this supposition does not much assist the explanation. It appears, from the accurate analysis of the phænomena which Newton has given, and which has by no means been superseded by any later observations, that the same colour recurs whenever the thickness answers to the terms of an arithmetical progression. Now this is precisely similar to the production of the same sound, by means of an uniform blast, from organ-pipes which are different multiples of the same length. Supposing white light to be a continued impulse or stream of luminous ether, it may be conceived to act on the plates as a blast of air does on the organ-pipes, and to produce vibrations regulated in frequency by the length of the lines which are terminated by the two refracting surfaces. It may be objected that, to complete the analogy, there should be tubes, to answer to the organ-pipes: but the tube of an organ-pipe is only necessary to prevent the divergence of the impression, and in light there is little or no tendency to diverge; and indeed, in the case of a resonant passage, the air is not prevented from becoming sonorous by the liberty of lateral motion. It would seem, that the determination of a portion of the track of a ray of light through any homogeneous stratum of ether, is sufficient to establish a length as a basis for colorific vibrations. In inflections, the length of the track of a ray of light through the inflecting atmosphere may determine its vibrations: but, in this case, as it is probable that there is a reflection from every part of the surface of the surrounding atmosphere, contributing to the appearance of the white line in every direction, in the experiments already mentioned, so it is possible that there may be some second reflection at the immediate surface of the body itself, and that, by mutual reflections between these two surfaces, something like the anguiform motion suspected by Newton may really take place; and then the analogy to the colours of thin plates will be still stronger. A mixture of vibrations, of all possible frequencies, may easily destroy the peculiar nature of each, and concur in a general effect of white light.' P. 128.

On this subject we can offer no remarks, as they would lead us to considerable and disproportioned digressions. We may, however, observe, that the advantages of Euler's hypothesis, thus detailed, are partial only, and refer but to one point of the subject. The disadvantages and the discordance of this system to numerous facts, will be very obvious to the experienced philosopher; but they appear to us to merit investigation in the

discussion of the phaenomena of light, which have again attracted no inconsiderable share of attention.

‘IX. Experiments and Observations on the Light which is spontaneously emitted, with some Degree of Permanency, from various Bodies. By Nathaniel Hulme, M. D. F. R. S. and A. S.’

This is a pleasing and entertaining article, of which we shall offer a short analysis. Dr. Hulme shows very clearly, that the phosphorescence of putrescent animal substances is not, as has been supposed, in proportion to the degree of putrefaction, but that, in reality, it diminishes the farther they are advanced to that state. This light, as many authors have lately endeavoured to prove, appears also, from our author’s experiments, to be a constituent part of the animal, and capable of being separated from it, and added to any other body, chiefly fluid ones. Some substances have a power of extinguishing the light. These are,

‘1. Water alone. 2. Water impregnated with quicklime. 3. Water impregnated with carbonic acid gas. 4. Water impregnated with hepatic gas. 5. Fermented liquors. 6. Ardent spirits. 7. Mineral acids, both in a concentrated and diluted state. 8. Vegetable acids. 9. Fixed and volatile alkalis, when dissolved in water. 10. Neutral salts: viz. saturated solutions of Epsom salt, of common salt, and of sal ammoniac. 11. Infusions of chamomile flowers, of long pepper, and of camphor, made with boiling-hot water, but not used till quite cool. 12. Pure honey, if used alone.’
P. 171.

The power of the neutral salts in preserving or extinguishing light, is peculiar. It depends on the proportion of salt, as if some solid particles were necessary to reflect the light, while too many obscured it. One drachm of Epsom salt, in an ounce of water, rendered the fluid luminous, when the light of fishes was added: seven drachms obscured it. We say *obscured*, because the light was not lost; for, when the solution was properly diluted, it was restored. Motion seems to render phosphorescence more vivid, but at no time is it attended with heat. Cold, at least so low as the freezing point, obscures the light, which is again restored by thawing; moderate heat, on the contrary, renders it more vivid; and, when light is collected in a luminous ring on the top of a phial, warming it diffuses the light in rays streaming downwards to the bottom, where it is apparently lost. Light is destroyed, without recovery, by more violent heat; but the degree is not the same in different substances, or probably at different times: in general, the ratio from 96° to 130°, seems requisite for the purpose.

The human body appears, at times, to annihilate the pho-

phorescence of bodies, at others to increase it; and this variety seems owing to the degree of heat of the body, and the time of application. The blood was rendered slightly luminous, but the light was of no long duration, and, when putrid, it appeared to be rejected with a repulsive force. The serum, probably as a saline fluid, was beautifully illuminated by herring-light. Milk was rendered luminous, but when sour, the light was soon extinguished. Bile seemed scarcely capable of retaining the light. Phosphorescence, whether animal or vegetable, from rotten wood, appeared to be the same.

‘X. Account of a Series of Experiments, undertaken with the View of decomposing the Muriatic Acid. By Mr. William Henry.’

The pretended discovery of the radical of the muriatic acid by Girtanner, and the refutation by Van Mons, must be fresh in our reader's recollection. Mr. Henry has been also unsuccessful, but without having made any pretensions to the discovery. His modest ‘Account’ of his ‘Series of Experiments’ demands our commendation. He employed the muriatic acid in the form of gas, as its purest state, and used the electrical shock as the most powerful agent. He found, however, hydrogenous gas, after the shocks had been received, and discovered that the muriatic acid air still contained water, in the proportion of 1.4 to 100 cubic inches, though it had stood on warm muriat of lime. This water furnished the hydrogen, while its oxygen united with the muriatic acid, and acted on the mercury, which confined the airs. The really acid portion of muriatic gas was unaffected. When the electric shocks are passed through a mixture of carbonated hydrogen, and muriatic acid gases, their water is decomposed by the carbon of the former, and the result is carbonic acid and hydrogenous gases. The carbon, therefore, though powerfully attractive of oxygen, could not separate it from the muriatic acid; so that, if the latter be an oxygenated substance, no reagent yet known is powerful enough to destroy their union. Mr. Henry was equally unsuccessful in his analysis of fluoric acid.

‘XI. On a new fulminating Mercury. By Edward Howard, Esq. F. R. S.’

Mr. Howard's memoir is a very interesting one. The composition of this powder we shall first notice.

‘One hundred grains, or a greater proportional quantity, of quicksilver (not exceeding 500 grains) are to be dissolved, with heat, in a measured ounce and a half of nitric acid. This solution being poured cold upon two measured ounces of alcohol, previously introduced into any convenient glass vessel, a moderate heat is to be applied until an effervescence is excited. A white fume then be-

gins to undulate on the surface of the liquor; and the powder will be gradually precipitated, upon the cessation of action and re-action. The precipitate is to be immediately collected on a filter, well washed with distilled water, and carefully dried in a heat not much exceeding that of a water bath. The immediateedulcoration of the powder is material, because it is liable to the re-action of the nitric acid; and, whilst any of that acid adheres to it, it is very subject to the influence of light. Let it also be cautiously remembered, that the mercurial solution is to be poured *upon* the alcohol.

P. 214.

This powder fulminates on concussion by the electrical shock, and by a spark from flint and steel. Its power is more than double that of gunpowder, but its influence is not so extensive. Four grains of gas only are separated, which cannot account for the force of the explosion, so that probably some of the mercury is reduced, and scattered in vapour. The gas was a mixture of carbonic acid and nitrogen gases.

The principal re-agents which decompose this gas, are the nitric, the muriatic, and the sulphuric acids, the last of which occasions an explosion, if concentrated, at the moment of contact.

‘ Upon the whole, I trust it will be thought reasonable to conclude, that the mercurial powder is composed of the nitrous etherized gas, and of oxalate of mercury with excess of oxygen.

‘ 1st, Because the nitric acid converts the mercurial powder entirely into nitrous gas, carbonic acid gas, acetous acid, and nitrate of mercury.

‘ 2dly, Because the dilute sulphuric acid resolves it into an unflammable oxalate of mercury, and separates from it a gas resembling that into which the same acid resolves the nitrous etherized gas.

‘ 3dly, Because an unflammable oxalate is likewise left, after the muriatic acid has converted a part of it into sublimate.

‘ 4thly, Because it cannot be formed by boiling nitrate of mercury in dulcified spirit of nitre; although a very inflammable oxalate is by this means produced.

‘ 5thly, Because the difference of the product of gas, from the same measures of alcohol and nitrous acid, with and without mercury in solution, is not trifling; and,

‘ 6thly, Because nitrogen gas was generated during its combustion in the glass globe.

‘ Should my conclusions be thought warranted by the reasons I have adduced, the theory of the combustion of the mercurial powder will be obvious to every chemist. The hydrogen of the oxalic acid, and of the etherized gas, is first united to the oxygen of the oxalate, forming water; the carbon is saturated with oxygen, forming carbonic acid gas; and a part, if not the whole, of the nitrogen

of the etherized gas, is separated in the state of nitrogen gas; both which last gases, it may be recollected, were after the explosion present in the glass globe. The mercury is revived, and, I presume, thrown into vapour; as may well be imagined, from the immense quantity of caloric extricated, by adding concentrate sulphuric acid to the mercurial powder.' P. 222.

The proportions seem to be of pure oxalic acid about .21; of mercury nearly .65; and of nitrous etherized gas and excess of oxygen .14. This powder takes fire at the temperature of 368° of Fahrenheit, and will explode in vacuo. It seems, from experiment, not likely to be useful in grenades from its limited sphere of action, but may probably be of service in destroying cannon.

The meteorological journal for 1799, as usual, concludes the volume. The mean height of the out-door thermometer was $48^{\circ}.5$, of Six's $47^{\circ}.9$, of the barometer 29.84; and the quantity of rain only 19.66 inches. The mean heat of April was 44° nearly. The year was undoubtedly very cold. The thermometer was never above 77° in June and July, and this only in the morning, when it is evidently influenced by the reflected sun. On the afternoon of these days it was only 67° .

An Introduction to Harmony. By William Shield. 4to. 18s. Boards. Robinsons. 1800.

FROM the acknowledged professional talents and experience of the author, this work has been for some time impatiently expected by musical professors; nor do we believe that expectation of useful information on the art and practice of music will be disappointed.

The two principal considerations which should necessarily occupy the mind of the critical examiner of a work like the present are, first, the importance of the subject; and secondly, how far the author has fulfilled the promises made in his proposals or title-page.

Mr. Shield modestly calls his work 'an Introduction to Harmony,' which is frequently another phrase for preface; and the import of which, in its most legitimate sense, can no more imply a *complete* system, theory, or treatise, on music, than the vestibule of a building or the avenue to it can be the representative of the whole structure; and, for the importance of what is promised (to continue the parallel) as the avenue to a beautiful building is generally planted in such a manner as shall best delight the eye of those who approach it, so our ingenious author has presented to the view of his reader, the most prominent and alluring features of his art, concealing deformities,

whether of situation, petty offices, or old buildings; and early in his work, quitting grammatical and elementary dryness, he has plunged at once into the elegance and refinements of the great masters, whose genius and science have extended the limits, and embellished the whole circumference of music.

Taking it for granted, we suppose, that the reader has not the *horn-book* or gamut to learn, the author has not given a general scale of musical sounds, from the two extremes of high and low, that are used in composition for different voices and instruments. What he terms *the scale*, is only a few steps of the musical ladder: eight notes ascending and descending, from C to c.

Nor have we a time-table, or any rule given for measuring the duration of the notes and rests which he uses; though, in the first part of his work, every species of note is employed, except the demisemiquaver. But as this tract is only styled an introduction to *harmony*, not *melody*, which depends on measure and accent, the author perhaps forgot the time-table, or thought it unnecessary in the discussion of harmony. Yet if the reader of this ingenious publication should not be well acquainted with the aliquot parts of a semibreve, the many excellent examples of composition interspersed through the work in illustration of its rules, would afford him little pleasure or profit in solitary study.

After the short account of the scale, and the intervals contained in the natural octave, Mr. Shield proceeds immediately to the common chord major of $\frac{8}{3}$, and its products of 6th and $\frac{6}{4}$.

We have next the scale and common chord minor, with its inversions.

After this we have a clear account of the *high crime* and *misdemeanor* of *two fifths* and *two eighths*, with the methods of avoiding them.

We are glad Mr. Shield prefers calling the sharp 7th of a key the *leading* note, rather than the *sensible* note. Though *note sensible* is very elegant and expressive in French, it does not naturalise well in English. *Sensible* is a term equivocal in our tongue, and generally applied to the mind, when operated upon by the senses. We cannot say that a note is *sensible* without personifying it. A *sensitive plant* is supposed to have *feeling* from its shrinking at the touch; but this cannot be said of a note; which may excite sensation and feeling in the hearer, but not possess either itself. The sharp 7th is a piquant stimulating sound, which awakens attention and interest in the hearer more than any other discord; and, if *leading note* should not suf-

ficiently express its effects, we see no reason why it may not be termed the *exciting* or *stimulating* note, in order to avoid the adoption of a Gallicism which the idiom of our language refuses to ratify.

In page 10 we have an exhibition of a series of 6ths which may be safely played or sung, 'by placing the minor scale above the major.' 3ds and 6ths, though called imperfect concords, are the only intervals that can be borne in regular succession.

In p. 11, bar 7, in the second violin, there is an error in the press: the d was never meant by the composer of that ingenious fragment, but B; which not only completes the series of 6ths, but avoids two octaves with the base.

We are glad Mr. Shield has not indulged *dilettante* idleness, by totally banishing the tenor clef. Whoever is unacquainted with the tenor scales is not only unable to read a score of the present time, but all music for keyed instruments composed forty or fifty years ago; and foreign music in general becomes a cypher, as unintelligible as Egyptian hieroglyphics, particularly the vocal music of Italy. The score of French operas at present, and the harpsichord lessons of Germany, till within these ten years, were all written and printed in tenor clefs.

The first and principal discord, the 7th, is well explained and illustrated, p. 12, as are its derivatives of $\frac{6}{5}$ and $\frac{6}{3}$, with its inversion of $\frac{6}{2}$.

Page 16. The author has stigmatised two passages for which we can see no reason. We always thought it allowable to move from one part of a common chord to another, if octaves were avoided.

Mr. Shield has made good use of a Russian air with respect to allowances and disallowances of successive fifths.

At p. 22 a very important lesson is given for students to practise in all keys. This the French call *la règle de l'octave*, or rule for accompanying the octave ascending and descending. This harmonic formula, according to Rousseau, was first published by M. Delaire in 1700. It is a rule which, at a young musician's *fingers' ends*, would enable him to accompany without figures any modern composition in which there is no extraneous modulation.

Page 25. The author begins a new and useful expedient for teaching thorough-bass to performers on instruments, which are chiefly confined to the melody of a single part, and incapable of playing chords. The figuring preludes for treble instruments, in the ascending and descending scales, is well

imagined. It has not, as far as we know, been attempted before. In all the books of instructions for the violin and German flute that we have seen, the rules and precepts are wholly confined to the performance of melody, or a single part, without informing the student whence that melody is derived. The reducing melody to chords is a useful expedient in teaching accompaniment on keyed-instruments, for which all treatises on harmony seem written. A violoncello player particularly wants thorough-bass in accompanying recitatives; but this never seems to have been thought of in teaching that instrument. The harmony of the scales, ascending and descending, which Mr. Shield has given for the violin and flute will do nearly as well for the violoncello and hautbois.

Page 28. We have the 9th and its accompaniments explained. In a note at the bottom of this page Mr. Shield gives an importance to this discord from some high but anonymous authority, to which we cannot subscribe. Nor can we possibly assign any reason for his fixing on the 9th, in preference to every other discord, for a young composer to study in the works of Correlli 'till he fully comprehends every treatment he has given to it; and then, if he has genius, he might begin to compose.' The 9th is neither the most agreeable, the most difficult to treat, nor the most frequently wanted of all the discords—upon what then can this great man's opinion be erected? It has been said in a book of maxims, that 'the opinions of men of great abilities are respectable *before* they have given their reasons for them; but *afterwards* they are upon a level with the opinions of other men: for they will *then* depend upon reasons for support, not upon the authority of the character.'

The examples Mr. Shield has given of the treatment of the 9th on the three subsequent pages are very good.

But after bowing down to this great authority with respect to the superior importance of the 9th, in the preliminary advertisement to the second part, Mr. Shield obliges his readers to renounce all authority in judging of the compositions he has selected to illustrate his precepts. 'Compositions (says he, p. 33) are frequently over-rated and undervalued by prejudice, therefore it appeared to me to be the most liberal plan, to let every musical illustrative example recommend itself by its own intrinsic merit, and not by the name of the author.'

Whether Mr. Shield bestows praise, or (which seldom happens) censure on professors, he never mentions the person implied or alluded to. This suppression of names is teasing, and answers no purpose where praise is given, and, for aught we know to the contrary, may be due. If Athenæus, in his miscellany of fragments, had concealed the names of authors whom he cites, posterity would have been deprived of much satisfaction. His compilation is now become invaluable, by preserving

not only beautiful passages to be found no where else, but also the names of the writers. Mr. Shield calls his work an *harmonical miscellany*, and our descendants may wish to know the names of authors of many specimens of excellence in various styles of composition; particularly that inserted, p. 34, as a model of grave, solemn, and grateful harmony, which must delight all those who can mount up to times when true simplicity could please the learned as well as the ignorant.

The *sanctus*, inserted p. 36, is a stronger instance of good sense and propriety in the author of it, than ingenuity of composition.

Part II. The scale of intervals at the beginning of this part will be very useful to a young musical student; and perhaps if the synonymous sounds on keyed-instruments had been linked together by a semi-circle or ligature thus, $c \times db$, $d \times eb$, &c. the identity would have been still more manifest.

Page 38. In treating of major and minor semitones, the notes, we fear, will puzzle the text. Perhaps the tyro would understand the following simple rule: the *same* note made accidentally flat, sharp, or natural, is a *minor* semitone, (to say why requires *ratios*;) when the note changes place from a line to a space, or space to a line, it is a *major* semitone.

In the next page, the subject of intervals is further pursued in a very clear and useful manner.

Page 40. The 4th made a discord by the 5th is very well explained and exemplified. The objectionable ways of taking these chords at D E F might be easily avoided by taking the chords in a different part of the instrument. And the author, after discovering the malady, should perhaps have prescribed a cure. Begin with C uppermost and all will be well.

Page 41. Passages for different instruments drawn from the harmony of the scale, ascending and descending. An admirable expedient for teaching thorough-bass to treble instruments, or such base instruments as usually play only single notes.

The four next pages contain excellent lessons of accompaniment for all the best instruments in use. We only object, p. 43, to the author's confining the term *relative* entirely to minor keys a 3d below the major. But all keys are *relative* that have one or more notes in common with two chords: as not only A, but E F and G are relatives to C. And we think Mr. Shield has copied Rameau and Rousseau with rather too much servility in pp. 44 and 45: first, in accompanying the $\frac{6}{4}$ with an 8th; secondly, in the titles given to the 4th and the 6th of a key, or inversion of the chord of the 7th: calling them the

great and *small* 6th. These titles have never been given by the Italians or the English to such chords. The $\frac{6}{5}$ is the appropriate chord to the 4th and major 7th of every key, ascending; and the $\frac{6}{4}$ major, the chord of the 2d of every key. If, in full harmony, the 2d were accompanied by the $\frac{6}{4}$ and 8th, it would be apt to involve both the composer and player in two 8ths between the bass and one of the other parts.

Page 46. Highly praiseworthy; particularly the descending chromatic scale in treble and bass. We shall probably elsewhere have the accompaniment to the *ascending* chromatic scale.

We are now arrived at what the author calls a 'Repertory of chords and cadences, from the unison to the thirteenth,' which he prefaces in the following manner.

'I have lately met with an excellent little treatise on harmony, the reading of which has given me both pleasure and information; the title is dated 1731, consequently it contains many exploded doctrines, but it likewise contains principles which will be the basis of theory in 1800, or any other century.

'The author's biographers inform us that he became a pedant in the latter part of his life, and only valued the abstruse part of the science; but, in the abovementioned work, he has condescended to explain his theory in such plain terms, that I have preferred his rules and examples, for the management of the unison, to my own.' P. 47.

This excellent little book, of which our author boasts the discovery, is not a very uncommon work in the libraries of musicians, and has, we believe, been described by Hawkins and Burney in their histories. It went at first under the name of lord Cornbury, a scholar of Dr. Pepusch; and his lordship, from his superior knowledge of the English language to his master, may have drawn it up as it was dictated to him; but the doctrine was always supposed to be that of the learned organist of the charter-house.

In the note * at the bottom of p. 48 there are some prohibitions for which we are neither told, nor can we discover, a reason; particularly that which forbids 'the going from the *unison* to the 6th *major*.'

From 49 to 52. We have here excellent lessons of thorough-bass for the violin. We would only wish, at the top of p. 50, that the word *retards* were changed to *sustains* or *continues*. The bass is a bound *appoggiatura*. Gracing the bass when it is the foundation of the harmony becomes jargon; but that is not the case here.

At the top of p. 51 a sharp is wanting to g in the treble

chord; and at the bottom, the notation of the transient shake is inaccurate. In rapid movements, there is not time for four notes: the first should be suppressed, and the shake begin upon the note itself.

The laws of harmony are pursued through all the figures and combinations of chords, and practical lessons of thorough-bass given for the chief instruments in use, to p. 57, where fragments of harmony are offered, of which some are curious. At p. 58, top, the 'trifling alteration' proposed, is not trivial in its effects: it has lengthened the measure from six bars to eight, and rendered a pretty passage heavy, correctly dull, and unmeaning.

59 is a very useful page, furnished by 'an excellent German writer.' But Mr. Shield is constant in concealing the names of authors whom he cites or alludes to, in order, we suppose, not to offend the living by praising the dead, or the memory of the dead, by encomiums on the living. As far as p. 59 no composer or musical writer is mentioned, except Handel once. But an implication now and then escapes the author, not difficult for the present professors to discover in the midst of all his purposed concealment.

Page 60. Here we have discords unprepared. These, the reader should be informed, are by the Italians called *à pedale*; as at the cadences in Corelli's and Geminiani's solos, where *tasto solo* occurs, and where the chords are only played by the violin, while the right hand of the harpsichord player gives nothing but the octave of the bass.

By the fragments which Mr. Shield quotes from different masters, he has convinced us of his having kept *good company* in his musical reading and practice, not confining himself to old authors, nor taking his examples from *their* works alone; yet never losing his respect for them. We have in this treatise all the modern combinations and bold licenses which great and original genius has dared to hazard; most of which have been adopted, and, as the French express it, *fait fortune* (made their fortune).

We cannot, however, quite agree with Mr. Shield in the difference he makes, p. 68, between the chords of the $\frac{7}{4}$ and $\frac{7}{2}$. In his example of the first, the 4th c is but an appoggiatura of that single note; and in the second there is an appoggiatura of the whole chord. The $\frac{7}{4}$ here is one of the many modern licenses which are now become rules. Forty years ago the harmony of the $\frac{7}{4}$ was sometimes continued in German symphonies during a whole bar, surprising every hearer and offending many.

Page 65. Some good regulations are proposed in the manner of figuring basses for accompaniment; but it is unfortunate for thorough-bass players, that after such pains have lately been taken to simplify the rules and regulate the figures representative of chords, no basses in printed music are now figured; but in songs, to preclude the necessity of learning the rules of practical harmony, an accompaniment for the piano-forte, harp, and guitar, is given in notation instead of figures.

The author, in hasty writing, employs more than once the expression of *resting bass*; would it not be better, and less equivocal, when the rolling-press is again set to work, to say a sustained, holding, or continued bass? A *resting bass* may be mistaken for a bass at rest.

Mr. Shield, by writing appoggiaturas in large notes, renders it necessary to figure them; which is a new practice. P. 68, line 1, the appoggiatura in the third fragment which precedes the d, is of equal importance with those in large notes; yet Mr. Shield has not figured it.

The three pages, 70, 71, and 72, are very well occupied by expedients for avoiding a succession of 5ths. Perhaps p. 73 might have been better employed than by burlesquing *recitative*; but as the author, farther on, makes the *amende honorable* to this important species of dramatic music, we shall quit his piece of humour with a smile instead of a frown.

The beautiful fragments given pp. 77 and 79 should not appear as foundlings, and fatherless. Here we have again to object to the provoking system of concealing names.

Part III. P. 85 to 88. On recitative. Upon this subject, the author has candidly and judiciously quoted the late Mr. Brown, whose observations on dramatic music in Italy were profound, and his feeling exquisite. Mr. Shield laments the not being able to allow room for Mr. Brown's whole letter; and we unite in the lamentation from that portion of it which Mr. Shield has inserted, together with two pages of admirable specimens of recitative accompanied. Mr. Shield has likewise not only given excellent specimens of *cantabile*, but two of *bravura*, without any previous indication of them. But musicians, as well as painters, should know the hands of great masters at the first glance.

The imitations which Mr. Shield so justly admires, at the bottom of p. 91, for their ingenuity, have a defect in accent of which the young student should be apprised: the great author of the *quartetto* has certainly, from inadvertence or a capricious design, introduced a passage into a triple-time movement, which manifestly belongs to common-time. The accents of the two first bars come wrong, and on different parts of each of these bars.

Upon examining with delight the trio of *Conrade the good*, we cannot help returning once more to the charge, and exclaiming to Mr. Shield, 'Why, in the name of mystery, keep out of sight the name of the author of that exquisite composition?' There may be reasons for suppressing censure, but well-deserved praise may safely be bestowed.

The instructions given, p. 95, for writing for wind instruments, will greatly enlighten a young composer. And the twenty-seven modulations, chiefly extraneous, and difficult to bring about without offending the ear, will be a curious and useful study for those who wish to explore unbeaten paths in the regions of harmony.

Besides scarce and curious compositions, Mr. Shield has furnished his work with many pleasing productions of a more familiar kind.

The elaborate accompaniments given at p. 100, to 'Oh! ponder well,' in the Beggar's Opera, in the true serious opera style, are very ingenious; but this old tune, tricked up in so elegant a manner, is not the original air, which is in triple-time, and the new edition of it in common-time. It is doubtless a better melody, and better accompanied, than that printed in the first editions of the Beggar's Opera, 1729; but whether it would have been more approved by Gay, whose design was to *burlesque* the Italian opera, we know not. The merit of Dr. Pepusch's simple basses to these national and vulgar tunes, is not only in science but propriety, as they neither disguise the melody, nor obscure the words. Played upon instruments, or sung to serious words, the lamentable village and street drawl would be lost, nor would the 'poor babes in the wood' ever be thought of.

Though, in general, we much respect the oracle alluded to by our author, p. 107, yet we cannot implicitly submit to its decree concerning *modulation*. 'I imagined (says Mr. Shield), that it could not exist without a change of key. But an oracle says, "Modulation is the art of rightly ordering the melody of a single part, or the harmony of many parts; either keeping in one key, or in passing from one key to another." 'God save great George our king,' is given on this extensive plan as an example of modulation, in which there is no real modulation according to the present acceptation of the word. If one great master were desired by another to sit down to a keyed-instrument and modulate, his hearers would be much disappointed if he confined his harmony to one key only. According to the oracle, modulation is melody, harmony, music—it is every thing, and nothing. But the import of the word in the present musical technica, is as well understood as that of flat, sharp, crotchet, or quaver. Books have been written on modulation.

and rules for passing from one key to another, relative or extraneous. The oracle's definition is such as a man of letters perhaps would give, who is wholly ignorant of music. But Mr. Shield was too humble and submissive to authority in adopting such an unscientific definition in preference to his own conception, which was just, short, and intelligible to every tyro in thorough-bass or composition. The verb *to modulate*, may, in careless language, be extended to a change of chord, or even single note; but as a technical word among musicians, it is, we believe, generally understood, as Mr. Shield imagined, *a change of key*. Every accidental flat or sharp in a musical composition, if accompanied by a bass, is *modulation*. The word is perhaps nearly synonymous with transition.

Pages 116 and 117 contain an inedited studied cadence, performed at Bach and Abel's concert, to an admired *concertante*, and to an admiring audience. We must not say by whom this ingenious cadence was composed lest it should divulge a secret which the author of the work before us so sedulously tries to preserve.

At p. 118 we have a pretty imitation of a Russian air, adapted to the piano-forte. And at 119, the famous Swiss air, the *Rans des Vaches*.

120. The rough score of 'the soldier tired of war's alarms,' with the author's corrections and cancels. 121. Vocal divisions from *vo solcando* and other *bravura* airs for the exercise of the voice.

122. Numerous examples of equivocal modulation, or modern enharmonic, extremely useful in these our days of licentious changes of keys. Exercises of the same kind for the violoncello or tenor.

124. An exercise containing abrupt modulations for the violin, with a modulation which has a peculiar enharmonic change in it for the violin or tenor, with instructions for the shifts and fingering.

Upon the whole, though this introduction may not be deemed a *regular treatise* of either practical or theoretical music, nor found to include *all* the elements of music in general, or the practice of any particular instrument complete; yet we may say with truth, that it contains more miscellaneous and useful knowledge of composition, and the practice of almost every species of instrument most in use, than any other book of instruction which has come to our hands.

Essays, Political, Economical, and Philosophical. By Benjamin Count of Rumford, Knight of the Orders of the White Eagle, &c. Vol. II. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

THE second volume of these Essays is not less interesting than the former *: in a philosophical view it is more so, since it contains some valuable additions to the former stock of science, applicable to the most useful purposes.

The sixth essay, the first of the present volume, is on the management of fire and the œconomy of fuel. It is needless to enlarge on the utility of the inquiry, since, in many places, fuel is with great difficulty procured, while some philosophers have supposed, that even the mineral strata which afford it may at no great distance from the present period be exhausted. In another view the object is important. When no more heat than what may be necessary for the operation is procured, and the whole is consumed, not only the large proportion so injurious to the domestics employed, and to the health of the inhabitants of large cities, is prevented from adding to the heat of the air, but the vapours which increase the injury are destroyed. If also the smoke could be blended with the steam, in the second operation of heating the water in the upper boilers, much of its deleterious nature might be destroyed, without any diminution of its heat, as the water, deposited on cooling the steam, would absorb the carbonic acid air in the vapour.

Great are the advantages arising from our author's œconomical contrivances. They reduce the quantity of fuel to $\frac{1}{7}$, and sometimes even to $\frac{1}{10}$ of what is ordinarily consumed; and this is effected not only by preventing the escape of the smoke and compelling it to communicate its heat before it escapes, but by interpoling non-conductors of heat between the boilers, as well as the various canals through which the heated smoke or steam passes, and the open air. The best and most convenient non-conductors is common air; but this is a subject with which our readers are sufficiently acquainted, from two papers by count Rumford, published in the Philosophical Transactions, noticed in our LXIIIrd volume, p. 321, and in our VIIth, N. A. p. 69, respectively.

In the third chapter, the count gives a summary of the doctrine of conductors of heat, and adduces an experiment to show that steam is not one of these.

* That steam is not a conductor of heat, I proved by the following experiment: A large globular bottle being provided, of very thin and very transparent glass, with a narrow neck, and its bottom drawn inward so as to form a hollow hemisphere about six inches in diameter; this bottle, which was about eight inches in diameter exter-

* See our XXVIIIth Vol. New Arr. p. 319.

nally, being filled with cold water, was placed in a shallow dish, or rather plate, about ten inches in diameter, with a flat bottom formed of very thin sheet brass, and raised upon a tripod, and which contained a small quantity (about $\frac{2}{3}$ of an inch in depth) of water; a spirit lamp being then placed under the middle of this plate, in a very few minutes the water in the plate began to boil, and the hollow formed by the bottom of the bottle was filled with clouds of steam, which, after circulating in it with surprising rapidity four or five minutes, and after forcing out a good deal of air from under the bottle, began gradually to clear up. At the end of eight or ten minutes (when, as I supposed, the air remaining with the steam in the hollow cavity formed by the bottom of the bottle, had acquired nearly the same temperature as that of the steam) these clouds totally disappeared; and, though the water continued to boil with the utmost violence, the contents of this hollow cavity became so perfectly invisible, and so little appearance was there of steam, that, had it not been for the streams of water which were continually running down its sides, I should almost have been tempted to doubt whether any steam was actually generated.

‘ Upon lifting up for an instant one side of the bottle, and letting in a smaller quantity of cold air, the clouds instantly returned, and continued circulating several minutes with great rapidity, and then gradually disappeared as before. This experiment was repeated several times, and always with the same result; the steam always becoming visible when cold air was mixed with it, and afterwards recovering its transparency when, part of this air being expelled, that which remained acquired the temperature of the steam.

‘ Finding that cold air introduced under the bottle caused the steam to be partially condensed, and clouds to be formed, I was desirous of seeing what visible effects would be produced by introducing a cold solid body under the bottle. I imagined that if steam was a conductor of heat, some part of the heat in the steam passing out of it into the cold body, clouds would of course be formed; but I thought if steam was a non-conductor of heat,—that is to say, if one particle of steam could not communicate any part of its heat to its neighbouring particles, in that case, as the cold body could only affect the particles of steam actually in contact with it, no cloud would appear; and the result of the experiment showed that steam is in fact a non-conductor of heat; for, notwithstanding the cold body used in this experiment was very large and very cold, being a solid lump of ice nearly as large as an hen’s egg, placed in the middle of the hollow cavity under the bottle, upon a small tripod or stand made of iron wire; yet as soon as the clouds which were formed in consequence of the unavoidable introduction of cold air in lifting up the bottle to introduce the ice, were dissipated, which soon happened, the steam became so perfectly transparent and invisible, that not the smallest appearance of cloudiness was to be seen any where, not even about the ice, which, as it went on to melt,

appeared as clear and as transparent as a piece of the finest rock crystal.' p. 61.

We are not, however, convinced that the circumstances in that experiment will bear him fully through his conclusion. Steam we know will become transparent when confined, and clouds ensue on the admission of cold air; but the clouds seem to arise from the refraction of light through fluids of different densities, as the transparent steam and cold air must be, and no conclusion can be drawn, without farther trial, how much the one is cooled and the other heated. When the ice was put in this transparent steam, the melting showed that steam really communicated its heat; but it formed water, not air; and the water, by continued heat, produced steam in a transparent vapour, so that as no fluid differing in density from the steam was produced, no cloudiness ensued. In other respects, we find no reason to retract the objections we once made to our author's opinions in reviewing the above-mentioned papers. The objections, however, relate chiefly to count Rumford's (then sir Benjamin Thompson's) explanations. With regard to this part of the subject, we are inclined to think, that steam is a conductor of heat: for it communicates its own heat to surrounding bodies, and may therefore communicate additional heat. The count supposes, that steam cannot be chemically changed by additional heat; but, if Saussure's experiments are faithfully related, the water appears to be decomposed and to become air, either by additional heat or by evaporating from different metals.

The count contends that flame is not a conductor of heat, and that its activity, when impelled by the blow-pipe, arises from its impinging in successive eddies. He found that whatever kind of air was forced through the blow-pipe, the effects were the same; but we believe that chemists in general, who employ vital air with this instrument, think differently. On the whole, this is not fully proved. Flame is only red hot vapour, and must, in its different affinities, be the same as the vapour not ignited; and the question is of less importance, as the practical conclusion, that the greatest heat is at the apex, not the side of the flame, is sufficiently established by common experience.

The experiments with boilers of different kinds, we find it difficult to analyse with advantage. Those who would derive benefit from them must read the whole. In general, dry wood is more economical than moist; the bottoms of the boilers must be as thin as is convenient with strength; the flame should be confined to the bottom of the boiler, and though in general large boilers are more economical than small ones, there is a maximum in the size above which they become disadvantageous.

For the account of different kitchens constructed by the author, and the particular advantages of many of his contrivances, we refer to the work itself. But we cannot refrain from transcribing the following account of a military kitchen, and of a portable boiler. The former is on the plan of closed kitchens for poor houses.

‘ I lately had an opportunity of fitting up a kitchen on these principles, in the construction of which there was not a particle of iron used, or of any other metal, except for the boiler. On the approach of the French army under general Moreau in August last, the Bavarian troops being assembled at Munich (under my command) for the defence of the capital, the town was so full of soldiers, that several regiments were obliged to be quartered in public buildings, and encamped on the ramparts, where they had no conveniences for cooking. For the accommodation of a part of them, four large oblong square boilers, composed of very thin sheet coppers well tinned, were fitted up in a mass of brick-work in the form of a cross; each boiler with its separate fire-place, communicating by double canals, furnished with dampers, with one common chimney, which stands in the centre of the cross. The dampers are thin flat tiles; the grates on which the fuel is burned are composed of common bricks, placed edgewise;—and the passages leading to the fire-place, and to the ash-pit, are closed by bricks which are made to slide in grooves.

‘ Under the bottom of each boiler, which is quite flat, there are three flues, in the direction of its length; that in the middle, which is as wide as both the others, being occupied by the burning fuel. The opening by which the fuel is introduced is at the end of the boiler farthest from the chimney; and the flame running along the middle flue to the end of it, divides there, and returning in the two side flues to the hither end of the boiler, there rises up into two other flues, in which it passes along the outside of the boiler into the chimney. The boilers are furnished with wooden covers divided into two equal parts, united by hinges. In order that the four boilers may be transported with greater facility from place to place, (from one camp to another for instance) they are not all precisely of the same size, but one is so much less than the other, that they may be packed one in the other. The largest of them, which contains the three others, is packed in a wooden chest, which is made just large enough to receive it. In the smallest may be packed a circular tent, sufficiently large to cover them all. In the middle of the tent there must be a hole through which the chimney must pass. The four boilers, together with the tent, and all the apparatus and utensils necessary for a kitchen on this construction for a regiment consisting of a thousand men, might easily be transported from place to place on an Irish car drawn by a single horse. P. 154.

‘ There is one more invention for the use of armies in the field,

which I wish to recommend, and that is a portable boiler of a light and cheap construction, in which victuals may be cooked on a march. There are so many occasions when it would be very desirable to be able to give soldiers, harassed and fatigued with severe service, a warm meal, when it is impossible to stop to light fires and boil the pot, that I cannot help flattering myself that a contrivance, by which the pot actually boiling may be made to keep pace with the troops as they advance, will be an acceptable present to every humane officer and wise and prudent general. Many a battle has undoubtedly been lost for the want of a good comfortable meal of warm victuals to recruit the strength and raise the spirits of troops fainting with hunger and excessive fatigue.' P. 157.

Plates are added, with proper explanations. The description of the perpetual lime-kiln offers some valuable improvements.

The subject of the seventh essay was intended to be the construction of kitchen fire-places and kitchen utensils; but, as all the experiments were not finished, the author has filled it with observations on the manner in which heat is propagated in fluids; on a remarkable law found to prevail in the condensation of water with cold, when near the freezing point, with its effects in the œconomy of nature: to which are added 'conjectures respecting the final cause of the saltiness of the sea.'

We have used, with our author, the term *conductor* of heat, without accurately defining his meaning. It is necessary now to be more clear and definite. When heat, as in metals, is communicated from one particle to another, while these particles are at rest, the body is properly called a conductor of heat; but, when there appears to be no (or a very slight) communication of heat between these particles, while at rest, the body is said to be a non, or a bad, conductor of heat. Probably a perfect non-conductor is not known, but many bodies are very imperfect conductors. Air is certainly so, and water perhaps does not greatly excel air in that respect. Those who have been accustomed to mix warm and cold water, particularly in tempering baths, must be convinced of this fact; for it requires long time and frequent agitation before the temperature of the bath is uniform. If water and air then were at rest they would conduct heat very slowly, but they are never in a state of perfect tranquillity, and the motion of the particles on each other, which constitutes their fluidity, enables them to conduct heat so well as they do. The particles by these motions communicate their heat to the surrounding vessel, which in turn heats the contiguous particles of fluid. The first suggestion of this method of communicating heat was, from observing the motion of the particles of spirit

of wine in a thermometer, rendered conspicuous by accidental impurities; and a similar intestine motion may be observed in boiling fluids. The writer accounts for any pulpy substance, or, in reality, any gluten added to water, rendering the fluid a worse conductor of heat, by preventing this intestine motion. We formerly explained the effect, from the difficulty with which a particle of water communicates its heat to a particle of the down or pulp, while the contiguous drop receives the heat with equal difficulty, so that heat is transmitted through such substances with a slowness proportioned to the number of particles interposed, in other words to the fineness of the down or pulp. Probably both causes may have their influence; but whatever may be the reason, the difficulty of communicating heat may be the final cause, as our author alleges, of the viscosity of the fluids of plants. They retain in this way the heat communicated by the ground more tenaciously, and, for this reason probably, the viscosity of the sap is increased in winter. We well know, that geraniums and many succulent plants of warm climates, may be exposed to the *common* colds of our winters with impunity, by a gradual subtraction of their usual supply of water.

Our author brought his doctrine of the communication of heat in water, by the commotion of its particles, to the test of experience, by mixing powdered amber in water. Amber he chose as it resembles water so nearly in specific gravity, while the excess of gravity in the amber was compensated by increasing that of the water, which for this purpose had some salt dissolved in it. His method was unnecessarily operose, for the same effect might have been produced by a more minute division of any heavier body.

It is nevertheless a very pleasing and instructive experiment, resembling that in common use, by which it is proved that no heat is felt at the bottom of a tea-kettle while boiling, though it is perfectly and painfully sensible when the boiling ceases. Yet the latter part of the phenomena is not peculiar to water, for we found the same want of communication of heat in boiling mercury, in the torricellian tube. To make the vacuum more complete, the mercury was boiled in portions from the bottom to the top, before it was inserted into the basin; and, though some defence was required for the hands while the under portion boiled, and the tube was held by the top, the upper portions, when boiling, communicated no heat below. Perhaps the same law takes place in all fluids; at least the inquiry is not unimportant, and our author hints at it in p. 241.

The count's next object was an inquiry into the communication of heat from water to ice. This investigation presents

some very curious and unexpected results. By pouring boiling water on ice, less than $\frac{1}{3}$ part of the heat lost by the water was communicated to the ice; and the ice melted eighty times more slowly at the bottom than at the top of the water. This might be supposed in some measure from the former experiments, since the heat ascends, and the ice might have remained unaffected under the slip of wood which confined it to the bottom, though not in contact except at the edge of the cake, by absorbing heat faster than the frozen fluid. We know that ice receives heat very slowly. When the ice was covered by a tin plate with a circular hole, it was dissolved only at the part where the cover was perforated. This was a singular event; but it is ingeniously explained from sir Charles Blagden's experiments. He found that all fluids were gradually condensed by cold, in proportion to its intensity, except water, which is condensed only till it has reached its 40th degree, when it begins to expand as we know, from the separation of air. When the hot water then reaches the ice, it is soon cooled to the 40th degree, and then becomes lighter than the water above, though of a higher temperature. The consequence is, that the hotter water descends; but the cover prevents it from touching the ice, except at the point where the perforation is, and by descending through it the excavation is formed, which, when over filled, forms a channel over the surface of the cake down the edges. This might have also been the cause of the ice remaining unchanged under the wood.

These principles lead to an extraordinary fact, viz. that water of 40° will melt as much ice, when standing on its surface, as boiling water; and our author has confirmed it by ingenious and operose experiments. We have preferred giving the foregoing detail in our own language that we might add the conclusion, and the table which results from it, more at length. The general deduction is, that whatever may be the heat of the water which is poured on ice, no water above 40° can remain in contact while any ice is left; for the moment the water acquires a lower temperature it ascends, since the rarefaction produced by the emulsion of air is greater than that occasioned by the heat of water under 112°, as it must be when brought from the fire. Our author has, however, confirmed it by experiment, and he finds that 190 grains of ice may be melted by water of 41° in about 10'. These experiments seem very clearly to show that water is a non-conductor of heat.

Other miscellaneous experiments were added, and circumstances occurred in those above mentioned which contributed to establish our author's principal position. The impulse of the water when poured on the ice must add to the heat, as we commonly find in heated air; but it seemed to add to the effect, by increasing the motion of the particles on each other. When

the jar was covered with thick cotton, the quantity of ice melted was increased: but even when the jar was plunged in a freezing mixture, more ice was melted by water of the heat of 41° than by boiling water. Very little difference occurred when the jar was in the temperature of 32° or 61° .

‘ All these appearances might, I think, be accounted for in a satisfactory manner on the principles we have assumed respecting the manner in which heat is propagated in liquids; but without engaging ourselves at present too far in these abstruse speculations, let us take a retrospective view of all our experiments, and see what general results may with certainty be drawn from them.

		Ice melted in 30 minutes
		Grains
In the experiments in which the part of the jar which was occupied by the water was exposed uncovered to the air at the temperature of 61°	With boiling-hot water (experiments No. 39, 40, and 41)	558 $\frac{2}{3}$
	With water at the temperature of 61° (experiments No. 53 and No. 54)	646
	With water at the temperature of 41° (experiments No. 42 and No. 43)	574
In the experiments in which the part of the jar which was occupied by the water was surrounded by pounded ice and water, and consequently was at the temperature of 32°	With boiling-hot water (experiments No. 45, 46, 47, 48, and 49)	399 $\frac{2}{3}$
	With water at the temperature of 61° (experiments No. 51 and No. 52)	661
	With water at the temperature of 41° (experiment No. 50)	542

‘ From the results of all these experiments we may certainly venture to conclude that boiling-hot water is not capable of melting more ice when standing on its surface, than an equal quantity of water at the temperature of 41° , or when it is only nine degrees above the temperature of freezing!

‘ This fact will, I flatter myself, be considered as affording the most unquestionable proof that could well be imagined, that water is a perfect non-conductor of heat, and that heat is propagated in it only

in consequence of the motions which the heat occasions in the insulated and solitary particles of that fluid *. P. 277.

We have followed the count in these experiments with unusual attention, because we deem them very important. We may be more concise in speaking of his application. The law of condensation of water, in cooling, is productive of many great advantages. In cooling $22\frac{1}{2}$ degrees of Fahrenheit, the condensation is ninety times greater when the water is boiling than at the mean temperature of England. The consequence is, that fresh water must freeze slowly; and, when the surface is frozen, the water below, brought from the mean temperature of the earth to 40° , will ascend and prevent the increase of ice beyond a certain thickness, while on a thaw, it will diminish the under surface as fast as the increased heat of the air corrodes the upper. Ice then, and snow in a greater degree, keep the water at a moderate temperature, even in the coldest weather of the most ungenial climates; and the ice is prevented from acquiring a thickness which no summer's sun could dissolve. The salt water, however, is not influenced by any similar law; but its depth prevents it from attaining so great a degree of cold, and its saltness from being affected at the temperature of 32° . Its flux and reflux, and its currents on the surface, the balance of which is reciprocally supplied by suitable under currents, contribute to equalise the temperature. If, as we had occasion to remark, the currents of the ocean tend from the equator northward, we shall see additional reasons for assigning this office of equalising temperature to the sea. We may, on probable grounds, suppose that the course of the currents is not from the equator to the south pole, and we can explain the difference by La Place's demonstration, that the hemispheroids, of which this planet consists, are not equal; but we see the *effect* in the increased intensity of the cold in the southern hemisphere at equal latitudes.

‘ But the ocean is not more useful in moderating the extreme cold of the polar regions, than it is in tempering the excessive heats of the torrid zone;—and what is very remarkable, the fitness of the sea water to serve this last important purpose is owing to the very same cause which renders it so peculiarly well adapted for communicating heat to the cold atmosphere in high latitudes, namely, to the salt which it holds in solution.

* * The insight which this discovery gives us in regard to the nature of the mechanical process which takes place in chemical solutions is too evident to require illustration;—and it appears to me that it will enable us to account in a satisfactory manner for all the various phenomena of chemical affinities and vegetation. Perhaps all the motions among inanimate bodies on the surface of the globe may be traced to the same cause,—namely, to the non-conducting power of fluids with regard to heat.’

* As the condensation of salt water with cold continues to go on even long after it has been cooled to the temperature at which fresh water freezes, those particles at the surface which are cooled by an immediate contact with the cold winds must descend, and take their places at the bottom of the sea, where they must remain, till, by acquiring an additional quantity of heat, their specific gravity is again diminished. But this heat they never can regain in the polar regions, for innumerable experiments have proved, beyond all possibility of doubt, that there is no principle of heat in the interior parts of the globe, which, by exhaling through the bottom of the ocean, could communicate heat to the water which rests upon it.

* It has been found that the temperature of the earth at great depth under the surface is different in different latitudes, and there is no doubt but this is also the case with respect to the temperature at the bottom of the sea, in as far as it is not influenced by the currents which flow over it; and this proves to a demonstration that the heat which we find to exist, without any sensible change during summer and winter, at great depths, is owing to the action of the sun, and not to central fires, as some have too hastily concluded.

* But if the water of the ocean, which, on being deprived of a great part of its heat by cold winds, descends to the bottom of the sea, cannot be warmed where it descends, as its specific gravity is greater than that of water at the same depth in warmer latitudes, it will immediately begin to spread on the bottom of the sea, and to flow towards the equator, and this must necessarily produce a current at the surface in an opposite direction; and there are the most indubitable proofs of the existence of both these currents.

* The proof of the existence of one of them would indeed have been quite sufficient to have proved the existence of both, for one of them could not possibly exist without the other: but there are several direct proofs of the existence of each of them.

* What has been called the gulf stream, in the Atlantic Ocean, is no other than one of these currents that at the surface which moves from the equator towards the north pole, modified by the trade winds, and by the form of the continent of North America; and the progress of the lower current may be considered as proved directly by the cold which has been found to exist in the sea at great depths in warm latitudes;—a degree of temperature much below the mean annual temperature of the earth in the latitudes where it has been found, and which of course must have been brought from colder latitudes.

* The mean annual temperature in the latitude of 67° has been determined by Mr. Kirwan, in his excellent treatise on the temperature of different latitudes, to be 39° ; but lord Mulgrave found on the 20th of June, when the temperature of the air was $48\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, that the temperature of the sea at the depth of 4680 feet was six degrees below freezing, or 26° of Fahrenheit's thermometer.

* On the 31st of August, in the latitude of 69° , where the annual

temperature is about 38° , the temperature of the sea at the depth of 4038 feet was 32° ; the temperature of the atmosphere (and probably that of the water at the surface of the sea) being at the same time at $59\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$.

But a still more striking, and I might, I believe, say an incontrovertible proof of the existence of currents of cold water at the bottom of the sea, setting from the poles towards the equator, is the very remarkable difference that has been found to subsist between the temperature of the sea at the surface and at great depth, at the tropic,—though the temperature of the atmosphere there is so constant that the greatest changes produced in it by the seasons seldom amounts to more than five or six degrees; yet the difference between the heat of the water at the surface of the sea, and that of the depth of 3600 feet, has been found to amount to no less than 31 degrees; the temperature above or at the surface being 84° , and at the given depth below no more than 53° .

It appears to me to be extremely difficult, if not quite impossible, to account for this degree of cold at the bottom of the sea in the torrid zone, on any other supposition than that of cold currents from the poles; and the utility of these currents in tempering the excessive heats of those climates is too evident to require any illustration.' P. 302.

We can cheerfully join in our author's conclusion, that *all* is wisely and happily contrived for the best: though we see through a glass darkly, we see enough to admire and adore the benevolence and wisdom of the supreme contriver of all.

The eighth essay contains the substance of the two papers published in the Philosophical Transactions, already quoted, and the ninth is on 'the source of heat excited by friction,' published in the volume of Philosophical Transactions for 1798, and noticed by us in our XXIVth volume, N. A. p. 37. Our author's future labours, some of which have recently appeared, we shall receive with pleasure and gratitude.

An Account of an Embassy to the Kingdom of Ava. (Continued from Vol. XXIX. p. 371, New Arr.)

UMMERAPOORA, the present capital of the united kingdoms of Ava, Arracan, and Pegu, was founded by Minderagee Praw, a successor of Alompra, either from vanity, or the superstitions inspired by judicial astrology, a study to which he was much addicted. Ummerapoora is situated about four miles north-east of Ava. In this spot, a deep and extensive lake is formed by the influx of the river, through a narrow channel, during the summer monsoon. It soon expands, and displays a body of water a mile and half broad, and seven or

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eight miles long. Its direction is, at first, northerly, nearly parallel with the river, but it afterwards curves to the south-east, while its stream gradually terminates in a morass, thus forming a dry healthy peninsula. This spot was arid and parched at the time of our author's arrival, though little above the level of the lake; and the usual embankments, for the plantations of rice, were, from the uncommon drought, useless: the formerly fertile grounds were an unproductive waste.

As soon as my visitors took their leave, I made a survey of our new habitation; it was a spacious house of one story, raised from the ground somewhat more than two feet, and better covered than Birman houses usually are; it consisted of two good sized rooms, and a large virando, or balcony; the partitions and walls were made of cane mats, with latticed windows in the sides: the shape of the roof was such as distinguishes the houses of nobles: it was altogether a comfortable habitation, and well adapted to the climate. Mr. Wood had a smaller house erected behind mine, and parallel to it, and Dr. Buchanan another at right angles. Small separate huts were constructed for the guard, and for our attendants; the whole was surrounded by a strong bamboo paling, which inclosed a court yard. There were two entrances by gates, one in front of my house, the other backwards; at each of these, on the outside of the paling, was a shed, in which a Birman guard was posted to protect us from thieves, keep off the populace, and probably to watch and report our movements.

On the skirts of the same grove, in a line with our dwelling, similar houses were erected for three Chinese deputies, who had arrived at Ummerapoora about two months before us: these personages were represented as composing a royal mission from the imperial city of Peking, but circumstances early led me to suspect that their real character did not rise higher than that of a provincial deputation from Manchegee, or Yunan, the south-west province of China, which borders on the kingdom of Ava, a conjecture that was afterwards confirmed. They had accompanied the governor of Bamoo, which is the frontier province, to the capital; and I understood that their business was to adjust some mercantile concerns relating to the jee, or mart, where the commodities of the two empires are brought and bartered. It was not at all improbable that the mission had been sanctioned by the authority of the emperor of China, especially as the principal member of it was a native of Peking, and had lately come from thence; but the false pride of the Birman court suggested the puerile * expedient of representing it to us as an imperial embassy, a distinction to which, I was privately

* The Chinese seem to have been actuated by a policy equally absurd, when they informed Sir George Staunton, at the time of the formal introduction of Lord Macartney, that "ambassadors from Pegue" were present; and that "Siam, Ava, and Pegue, were tributary to China:" such unworthy deceptions not being expected, could hardly be guarded against. The court of

informed from an authentic source, it possessed no pretensions whatever. The members, however, were treated apparently with much personal respect and attention." P. 284.

The same weak pride leads the court of Ummerapoora to consider every ambassador as a tributary, and his presents as tributes, and, generally speaking, the opinion is not void of foundation; for it seldom happens that ambassadors and presents are sent without some secret ideas of advantage, even if it be only to have a 'privileged spy,' as an ambassador has been called, in a rival or a friendly court. Our author's interview with the Chinese envoys was not productive of pleasure or information. It was the 'dullest of the dull scenes of eastern intercourse; yet, at a subsequent visit, the affectionate sensibility of 'the son of Kelloree,' one of the younger Chinese, afforded no small degree of entertainment, and did the highest honour to the feelings of his heart. Why will not this nation more frequently unbend from its stiffness, and join in social intercourse with the rest of mankind? It is a singular custom in the Birman empire, that the rhoom, the hall of justice, is an open building. Birman policy or judgement conceals no transaction of this kind.

Major Symes' embassy was, as to its event, uncertain, from various causes. As the agent of the governor-general, it was difficult to substantiate his claims to the honour of being considered as the representative of a monarch. Indeed, in all his representations this difficulty recurs; and though with a laudable spirit of policy, by blending conciliation with steadiness, he succeeded in establishing his pretensions, the intermediate agent is always seen, and, we think, studiously brought forward in the Birman papers. Pride is the characteristic of the Birman court, but its effects are softened by benevolence, and it occasionally unbends itself from political motives. As in person, so in their political features, the princes form a link between the Chinese and the Hindu sovereigns. The good effects of the embassy were also impeded by the interested jealousy of some rival powers, particularly the French, who represented England as an inconsiderable island, almost overpowered by numerous enemies, and her Indian territories as a mere commercial settlement on its first establishment, but which was afterwards usurped by conquest, and was then on the eve of annihilation. With every apparent profession of respect, and every hospitable attention, incivility and public affronts were not uncommon. The Birman court, studiously observant of the minutest punctilio, could commit indignities,

Ava and Peking appear to resemble each other in many points, but in none more than in their vanity, which often manifests itself in a manner not less ridiculous than contemptible.

which had a tendency to degrade the embassy, even to derision, in the eye of the people; indignities which nevertheless could be explained as accidental occurrences, as unintentional or unimportant. In the end, however, the calm good sense of major Symes prevailed over every opposition.

We have engaged in this detail not to interrupt our account of this empire, hitherto so little known. In religion, the Birmanians are followers of Boodh, not votaries of Bramha, and the Birman deity, Guadma, resembles very nearly the representative of Boodh, found in Bengal, and described in the first volume of the Asiatic Researches. Gotma, or Gontum, is the name of an Indian philosopher, who taught the doctrines of Boodh, and from hence the Birman deity's appellation is derived. The followers of Boodh are more numerous than those of Bramha, and the purest profession of this religion is said to be in the island of Ceylon.

Whatever may be the antiquity of the worship of Boodh, the wide extent of its reception cannot be doubted. The most authentic writer on the eastern peninsula calls the image of Gaudma, as worshipped by the Siamese, Somona-codom: being unacquainted with the language of Siam, which from so short a residence as four months, it was impossible he could have acquired, he confounds two distinct words, Somona, and Codom, signifying Codom, or Gaudma, in his incarnate state; the difference between the letters C and G may easily have arisen from the mode of pronunciation in different countries; even in the Birman manner of uttering the word, the distinction between these letters is not very clear. The Boodh of the Indians and the Birmans, is pronounced by the Siamese Pooth, or Pood; by the vulgar, Poo; which, without any violence to probability, might be converted by the Chinese into Foe; the Tamulic termination *en*, as Mr. Chambers remarks, creates a striking resemblance between Pooden and the Woden of the Goths; every person who has conversed with the natives of India knows that Boodh is the Dies Mercurii, the Wednesday, or Woden's day, of all Hindoos. Chronology, however, which must always be accepted as a surer guide to truth, than inferences drawn from the resemblance of words, and etymological reasoning, does not, to my mind, sufficiently establish that Boodh and Woden were the same. The period of the ninth incarnation of Vishnu was long antecedent to the existence of the deified hero of Scandinavia. Sir William Jones determines the period when Boodh appeared on the earth to be 1014 years before the birth of Christ. Odin, or Woden, flourished at a period not very distant from our Saviour, and was, according to some, a cotemporary of Pompey and of Julius Cæsar. The author of the Northern Antiquities places him 70 years after the Christian æra. Even the Birman Gaudma, conformably to their account, must have lived above 500 years before Woden. So im-

menſe a ſpace can hardly be ſuppoſed to have been overlooked : but if the ſuppoſition refers, not to the warrior of the north, but to the original deity Odin, the attributes of the latter are as widely oppoſed to thoſe of Boodh, who was himſelf only an incarnation of Viſhnu, as the dates are incongruous. The deity, whoſe doctrines were introduced into Scandinavia, was a god of terror, and his votaries carried deſolation and the ſword throughout whole regions; but the Ninth Avatar brought the peaceful olive, and came into the world for the ſole purpoſe of preventing ſanguinary acts. Theſe apparent inconſiſtencies will naturally lead us to heſitate in acknowledging Boodh and Wodin to be the ſame perſon: their doctrines are oppoſite, and their æras are widely remote.' P. 300.

We are not prepared, nor indeed is this the proper place, to diſcuſs the queſtion, reſpecting the identity of Gaudma or Boodh, and Odin; but we may remark, that among a ferocious or ſanguinary tribe, the mild doctrines of Boodh may have aſſumed a fiercer character; and, though Odin was a warrior of a comparatively late epoch, we know that Scandinavia received its inhabitants from the Eaſt; that they had deities long before the æra of this warlike chief; and that, previous to the time of Odin, they revered Woden. We ſuſpect, therefore, that our author's oppoſition to the opinion of ſir William Jones will be found not very formidable.

The laws of the Birman empire are thoſe of Bramah, and their fundamental work is that of Menu, whoſe ordinances, with the commentaries, form the Shaſtra. The commentary which they adopt is, in major Symes' opinion, diſtinguiſhed for perſpicuity and good ſenſe, and comprises almoſt every ſpecies of crime. The minuter details of the legislative code, with the diſtinction of ranks, in their political ſyſtem, dreſs, &c. muſt be peruſed in the work itſelf.

The population of the empire is eſtimated at about fourteen millions and a half, but this is in a great degree confeſſedly conjectural. Its revenues cannot even be approximated. The monarch hoards all the money, rewarding his officers and favourites with governments, &c. and keeping them in a dependence, ſtrictly feudal. Thus every man in the kingdom may be a ſoldier, and the Birman is, of courſe, a military nation. The ſtanding army is by no means numerous. The cavalry are all caſſayers, and reſemble thoſe of Affam; the magazines are well provided with numerous arms, but the firelocks are in a very imperfect ſtate, as the manufacturers are by no means expert.

' By far the moſt reſpectable part of the Birman military force is their eſta bliſhment of war-boats. Every town of note, in the vicinity of the river, is obliged to furniſh a certain number of men, and one or more boats, in proportion to the magnitude of the place.

I was informed that the king can command, at a very short notice, 500 of these vessels; they are constructed out of the solid trunk of the teak tree, which is excavated partly by fire, and partly by cutting; the largest are from eighty to one hundred feet long, but the breadth seldom exceeds eight feet, and even this space is produced by artificially extending the sides after the trunk has been hollowed. They carry from fifty to sixty rowers, who use short oars that work on a spindle; the prow is solid, and has a flat surface, on which, when they go to war, a piece of ordnance is mounted, a six, a nine, or even a twelve pounder; the gun carriage is secured by lashings to strong bolts on each side, and swivels are frequently fixed on the curvature of the stern.

The rowers are severally provided with a sword and a lance, which are placed by his side whilst he plies the oars. Besides the boatmen, there are usually thirty soldiers on board, who are armed with muskets: thus prepared, they go in fleets to meet the foe, and, when in sight, draw up in a line, presenting their prows to the enemy. Their attack is extremely impetuous; they advance with great rapidity, and sing a war-song, at once to encourage their people, daunt their adversaries, and regulate the strokes of their oars; they generally endeavour to grapple, and when that is effected, the action becomes very severe, as these people are endued with great courage, strength, and activity. In times of peace they are fond of exercising in their boats, and I have often been entertained with the dexterity they display in the management of them. The vessels being low in the water, their greatest danger is that of being run down by a larger boat striking on their broadside, a misfortune which the steersman is taught to dread, and to avoid, above all others. It is surprising to see the facility with which they steer, and elude each other in their mock combats. The rowers are also practised to row backwards, and impel the vessel with the stern foremost; this is the mode of retreat, by means of which the artillery still bears upon their opponent. The largest of the war-boats do not draw more than three feet water. When a person of rank is on board, there is a sort of moving tilt or canopy, for his particular accommodation, placed sometimes in the centre, and sometimes on the prow. The sides of the boat are either gilt as far as the water's edge, or plain, according to the rank of the person it carries. Gilded boats are only permitted to princes of the blood, or to persons holding the highest stations, such as a maywoon of a province, and a minister of state. P. 320.

The great innovation made by Boodh, in the religion of Bramha, was the forbidding the slaughter of animals for food. This precept the Birmans have refined upon, and construe it to mean domesticated animals. Game they eagerly devour, and do not seem anxious to inquire how any domesticated animal was killed, if not expressly informed.

The country is particularly fertile: besides its invaluable production, the teak tree, in the northern mountainous parts, the fir seems to grow to a vast size, so as to be able to supply masts and yards for the ships constructed of this Indian oak. Gold, silver, and precious stones, except diamonds and emeralds, are plentifully produced. The first is applied as an ornament to all the regal insignia, and hence the epithet golden, implies royal: the 'golden feet' is the imperial presence; and information conveyed to the monarch, is said to reach the 'golden ears.' The marble of Ava is a sacred stone, employed only for the images of Gaudma; the amber and ivory are of an extraordinary fineness, and in great quantity; and cotton, both white and of a nankeen colour, are exported to China. Rice is produced in immense profusion. The Birmans have, however, no coin, and the bullion is weighed as in China. It was a sensible and judicious request of the emperor to have from Bengal the instruments for coinage, as well as a person acquainted with the process.

It has already been noticed, that the general disposition of the Birmans is strikingly contrasted with that of the natives of India, from whom they are separated only by a narrow range of mountains, in many places admitting of an easy intercourse. Notwithstanding the small extent of this barrier, the physical difference between the nations could scarcely be greater, had they been situated at the opposite extremities of the globe. The Birmans are a lively inquisitive race, active, irascible, and impatient; the character of their Bengal neighbours is too well known, as the reverse, to need any delineation; the unworthy passion of jealousy, which prompts most nations of the east to immure their women within the walls of an haram, and surround them with guards, seems to have scarcely any influence over the minds of this extraordinary and more liberal people. Birman wives and daughters are not concealed from the sight of men, and are suffered to have as free intercourse with each other as the rules of European society admit; but in other respects women have just reason to complain of their treatment; they are considered as not belonging to the same scale of the creation as men, and even the law stamps a degrading distinction between the sexes; the evidence of a woman is not received as of equal weight with that of a man, and a woman is not suffered to ascend the steps of a court of justice, but is obliged to deliver her testimony on the outside of the roof. The custom of selling their women to strangers, which has before been adverted to, is confined to the lowest classes of society, and is perhaps oftener the consequence of heavy pecuniary embarrassment, than an act of inclination; it is not, however, considered as shameful, nor is the female dishonoured; partly perhaps from this cause, and partly from their habits of education, women surrender themselves the victims of this barbarous custom with

apparent resignation. It is also said that they are very seldom unfaithful to their foreign masters, indeed they are often essentially useful, particularly to those who trade, by keeping their accounts and transacting their business: but when a man departs from the country, he is not suffered to carry his temporary wife along with him; on that point the law is exceedingly rigorous; every ship, before she receives her clearance, is diligently searched by the officers of the custom-house: even if their vigilance were to be eluded, the woman would be quickly missed; and it would be soon discovered in what vessel she had gone, nor could that ship ever return to a Birman port but under penalty of confiscation of the property, and the infliction of a heavy fine and imprisonment on the master: female children also, born of a Birman mother, are not suffered to be taken away. Men are permitted to emigrate; but they think that the expatriation of women would impoverish the state, by diminishing the sources of its population.' P. 328.

The Birman ladies, like Penelope, ply the loom, and the mild active benevolence of the men, while at home, gives way, during a foreign invasion, to every ferocious passion: as invaders, 'desolation marks their track, and they spare neither age nor sex.' It is singular, that the symbol of their nation is a goose. Elephants are numerous, but the jackall, though frequent in the neighbouring countries, is unknown in the Birman empire.

The division of the year is not very accurate in this country; and the emperor, who seems one of the first astronomers in it, is so well aware of the deficiency, that he has requested the assistance of an astronomical bramin from Bengal. The Pali is their sacred text, not very distant in its nature and appearance from the Sanscrit Birman, and the character is the round Nagari. The Pali, like that of the Sanscrit, and all other ancient characters, represents the letter in relief. The account of the music and poetry of the Birmans we cannot abridge. Dr. Buchanan's geographical information we shall select.

"It appears "that the Arracan river is not so considerable as what has been supposed, but takes its rise in hills at no great distance to the north.

"That the river coming from Thibet, which is supposed to be that of Arracan, is in fact the Keenduem, or the great western branch of the Ava river.

"That what is supposed to be the western branch of the Irrawaddy, is in fact the eastern one, which passes by Ava, and runs to the north, keeping west from the province of Yunan, and leaving between it and that part of China a country subject to the Birmans,

"That the Loukiang, which is supposed to be the great branch

of the Irrawaddy, has no communication with that river; but on entering the Birman dominions assumes the name of Thaluayn, or Thanluayn, and falls into the sea at Martaban.

"That the river of Pegue, which is supposed to come from China, rises among hills about 100 miles from the sea, and which form the boundary between the Birman and Pegue kingdoms.

"That between the Pegue and Martaban rivers there is a lake, from which two rivers proceed: the one runs north to Old Ava, where it joins the Myoungnya, or Little River of Ava, which comes from mountains on the frontiers of China; the other river runs south from the lake to the sea, and is the Sitang river in the map.

"That the rivers of China, which are supposed to be the heads of the Pegue river, are those of the river of Siam.

"That the rivers of Siam and Cambodia communicate by a very considerable branch, called the Annan." P. 341.

The general character of the Birmans displays benevolence and liberality: it was only in his public situation that major Symes could complain of the refined insults, which we have noticed. He visited the king and the princes, his sons, who were governors of different provinces, and in each visit found omissions, which a people so punctilious as the Birmans would not have made, except from design. These ceremonies are too tedious for an extract, and with the descriptions of the palace, the kioums (monasteries), the feredaw (chief priest), can only be perused with satisfaction in the author's own language. The palace and the kioums are particularly splendid, from the quantity of gold profusely spread over every part. The libraries consist of numerous chests, in which the works are arranged with great regularity, the contents being marked in gold letters on the head of each chest. Some of these are written on thin sheets of ivory; and there are various works in the ancient Pali, the religious text and language of the shepherd race.

In consequence of major Symes' very calm and temperate remonstrance, he is at last admitted to an audience of the king; for on his former visit the monarch did not appear. His embassy had a fortunate termination, and a commercial connection of a very advantageous kind was established. The account of his audience we must not omit.

'On entering the gate, we perceived the royal saloon of ceremony in front of us, and the court assembled in all the parade of pomp and decoration. It was an open hall, supported by colonnades of pillars, twenty in length, and only four in depth: we were conducted into it by a flight of steps, and advancing, took our places next the space opposite to the throne, which is always left vacant, as being in full view of his majesty. On our entrance, the basement of the throne, as at the Lotoo, was alone visible,

which we judged to be about five feet high; folding-doors screened the seat from our view. The throne, called yazapalay, was richly gilded and carved; on each side a small gallery, inclosed by a gilt balustrade, extended a few feet to the right and left, containing four umbrellas of state; and on two tables, at the foot of the throne, were placed several large vessels of gold, of various forms and for different purposes: immediately over the throne, a splendid parasol rose in seven stages above the roofs of the building, crowned by a tee, or umbrella, from which a spiral rod was elevated above the whole.

We had been seated a little more than a quarter of an hour, when the folding-doors that concealed the seat, opened with a loud noise, and discovered his majesty ascending a flight of steps, that led up to the throne from the inner apartment; he advanced but slowly, and seemed not to possess a free use of his limbs, being obliged to support himself with his hands on the balustrade. I was informed, however, that this appearance of weakness did not proceed from any bodily infirmity, but from the weight of the regal habiliments in which he was clad; and if what we were told was true, that he carried on his dress fifteen viss, upwards of fifty pounds avoirdupois of gold, his difficulty of ascent was not surprising. On reaching the top he stood for a minute, as though to take breath, and then sat down on an embroidered cushion, with his legs inverted. His crown was a high conical cap, richly studded with precious stones; his fingers were covered with rings, and in his dress he bore the appearance of a man, cased in golden armour, whilst a gilded, or probably a golden, wing on each shoulder, did not add much lightness to his figure. His looks denoted him to be between fifty and sixty years old, of a strong make, in stature rather beneath a middle height, with hard features, and of a dark complexion; yet the expression of his countenance was not unpleasing, and seemed, I thought, to indicate an intelligent and inquiring mind.

On the first appearance of his majesty, all the courtiers bent their bodies, and held their hands joined in an attitude of supplication. Nothing farther was required of us than to lean a little forward, and to turn in our legs as much as we could; not any act being so unpolite, or contrary to etiquette, as to present the soles of the feet towards the face of a dignified person. Four bramins, dressed in white caps and gowns, chanted the usual prayer at the foot of the throne: a nakhaan then advanced into the vacant space before the king, and recited, in a musical cadence, the name of each person who was to be introduced on that day, and the present of which, in the character of a suppliant, he entreated his majesty's acceptance. My offering consisted of two pieces of Benares gold brocade; doctor Buchanan and Mr. Wood each presented one. When our names were mentioned, we were separately desired to take a few grains of rice in our hands, and, joining them, to bow to the king as low as we conveniently could, with which we im-

mediately complied. When this ceremony was finished, the king uttered a few indistinct words, to convey, as I was informed, an order for investing some persons present with the insignia of a certain degree of nobility: the imperial mandate was instantly proclaimed aloud by heralds in the court. His majesty remained only a few minutes longer, and during that time he looked at us attentively, but did not honour us with any verbal notice, or speak at all, except to give the order before mentioned. When he rose to depart, he manifested the same signs of infirmity as on his entrance; after he had withdrawn, the folding-doors were closed, and the court broke up.' P. 412.

The ambassador returned down the Irrawaddy, laden with presents, equally in consequence of Birman kindness and Birman pride, which would accept of nothing without bestowing an equivalent. Among the presents were some Birman horses, which are represented as small, but beautiful, and, with their assistance, he could occasionally extend his limited sphere of observation. He saw the country fertile; the people industrious, and apparently happy. Numerous temples occurred in their way, in one of which was a colossal representation of their deity, being twenty-four feet from its head to the pedestal on which it sat, with proportional bulk. This was said to be made of a single block of marble, an assertion which the minutest observation could not disprove, though the difficulty of moving such an immense mass must excite astonishment. The temple was evidently built over the statue. It was remarkable, that the images of the deity, brought from Arracan, were constantly made of brass.

The wells of Petroleum, which our travellers observed in their journey, are a singular curiosity, but the description is not very important. The country around was stony and barren; the oil was conveyed in earthen jars, which were often broken, from the shocks received in a very uneven road. Two or three hundred pots of oil cost on the spot about half a crown. The depth of the wells was thirty-seven fathom, and it was reckoned a tolerably productive depth when the oil reached to a man's waist. We suspect, in this estimation, a proportion of water must be included. The description of the Kayn, or mountaineers, inhabitants of the mountains on the east of Arracan, is very singular. The faces of the women only are tattooed in concentric circles. Their manners are simple, and their minds uninformed: they believe in the transmigration of souls, and have no idea of either future rewards or punishments.

Major Symes' reflections on the importance of establishing a friendly connection with the Birman empire, and of the nature of the commerce which it will be expedient to carry on,

are liberal and enlightened. Timber is the most indispensable article, but he thinks it highly inexpedient to encourage ship-building in these eastern harbours. In this last respect we cannot fully acquiesce in his conclusion, but must acknowledge our inability to judge of his arguments with precision. The numerous harbours of this empire must be of the highest importance to our East Indian marine. The Birmans are very fond of chess; but their game differs, in some respects, from ours, as in all the oriental practice they have no piece whose movements are so uncontrolled as those of our queen. The queen, in the eastern game, is the visier.

Of the rarer plants collected by Dr. Buchanan, Sir Joseph Banks has selected the following, of which plates, with a description, are annexed, viz. *thalia cannaeformis*; *gardenia coronaria*; *pontederia dilatata*; *baubinia diphylla*; *sonneratia apetala*; *epidendrum moschatum*; *agyneia coccinea*; and *heritiera fomes*. The first only seems to have been known to the European botanists. The Appendix contains major Symes' letters, with the Birman monarch's proclamation, &c. in more than the diffuse style of eastern exaggeration and amplification.

The plates of the work are numerous, and the objects well chosen. They are said to be very faithful and accurate representations, often personal likenesses, and are executed with great neatness and precision. The mode of catching the wild elephants, from a drawing sent by the king; the view of the imperial court, with the ceremony of introduction; the representations of the kioum, and the golden boat, are the most splendid; though those of the different races and characters, in their appropriate dresses, were to us most interesting. After the long account we have given of this work, we need not say that it has highly pleased and interested us; nor will our readers probably think a detail so curious and instructive unnecessarily protracted. On the contrary, it may lead them to extend their gratification farther, by a perusal of the whole.

Medicina Nautica: An Essay on the Diseases of Seamen. With an Appendix, containing Communications on the new Doctrine of Contagion and Yellow Fever, by American Physicians; transmitted to the Admiralty by Sir John Temple, Bart. his Majesty's Consul-General. By Thomas Trotter, M. D. Physician to his Majesty's Fleet. Vol. II. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1799.

WE spoke with approbation of the first volume of this work, in our XX1st Vol. N. A. p. 386, and can cheerfully add

that we find no deficiency, no 'falling off' in the present, to induce us to detract from our panegyric.

In the general abstract of the salubrity of the fleet for 1797, we perceive many proofs of the attention of the officers and surgeons, of efforts most actively and advantageously exerted; in consequence of which, the health of these floating armies appears to have been almost equal to that of well situated villages. Mr. Baynton's method of treating ulcerated legs is spoken of respectfully, and some instances of true hysteria are mentioned as occurring among seamen of very different characters, after the alarming mutiny, in consequence probably of the agitation of their minds.

The first subject treated of is contagion, in which our author repeats his objections to Dr. Smyth's plan of fumigating with nitrous vapour. Indeed, he carries his opposition so far as to hint, from the experiments of Dr. Mitchell, which we shall soon again have occasion to notice, that this gas is the very contagion it is intended to destroy, and affirms, that, though it may for a time disguise the smell, the offensiveness will soon return, while it must absorb the oxygen, on which the salutary quality of vital air depends. Experience only can decide on this subject; but we own that we are more friendly to free air, cleanliness, and an immediate separation of the affected from the healthy seamen, than to any fumigations, which, we fear, will be often employed as a pretence for idleness, or as a disguise of fetid and fatally injurious filth. We will just notice one mistake in our author's reasoning, where he confounds the choak damp (hydrogen) with carbonic acid air: the latter, we believe, in no instance, produces fever. A similar error occurs in one of the American theses, where the author confounds azote with the semiel of the desert, which is hydrogen.

On the subject of yellow fever, he does not add greatly to our former knowledge. He prefers Dr. Moseley's practice, and thinks it necessary, on coming into a hot climate, to 'bring down' the gross European constitution to the tropical climate. Our author, among all the journals of sea surgeons, has not, it seems, discovered this advice; but he might have met with it, not in Hippocrates, but in a work of our worthy predecessor, Dr. Smollett—the second volume of *Roderick Random*. Mr. Crawford's letter subjoined, on this subject, is an excellent one. He observes, that a man has sometimes resisted the contagion on board an infected ship, and immediately sickened on entering into another. Instances of this kind may be observed not unfrequently on shore, where men are often condemned for introducing diseases, who, on leaving an unwholesome situation, have appeared perfectly well. Mr. Crawford thinks also, that, in some instances, the yellow fe-

ver communicates intermittents. As a remittent, we know it to be intimately connected with intermittents.

The small-pox is always a dangerous disease in ships; and our author, on its appearance, recommends immediate inoculation with the cow-pox, as a less dangerous disease; adding, that the number in a ship who have not experienced the malady, is seldom so great as materially to weaken her force. An epidemical ophthalmia is next described, as it occurred on board the Saturn; seemingly owing to damp hazy weather. In syphilis, Dr. Trotter distrusts the powers of nitrous acid, thinking it, without mercury, unequal to the cure, though a valuable remedy after its use, or when alternated with it, if that medicine should disagree. We may mention an instance, from the miscellaneous remarks, of scurvy coming on during the use of nitrous acid, and being cured by lemon juice, after which the disease appeared to yield to the repetition of the mineral acid. The other miscellaneous observations, and the remarks on diet, deserve very particular attention, but are incapable of detail in this place.

The 'malignant ulcer' is almost a new subject of inquiry, since a similar disease seems only to have been noticed by Dr. Rollo. It generally appears when any wound has been made in the skin, though it sometimes happens independently of any injury. The sore spreads with unexampled rapidity and acrimony, very soon destroying all the surrounding parts; and, when these separate, the subjacent muscle is very far from assuming a healthy appearance, but often becomes again irritable and inflammatory.

* The striking peculiarities of this ulcer are,

* 1st. Its rapid progress, by which, in the space of a few days, it passes through the various stages of inflammation, gangrene, and sphacelus, when the injured parts slough away, which puts an end to an acute concomitant fever.

* 2dly. It has been observed to prevail more in ships in port than at sea, or very shortly after leaving the harbour.

* 3dly. It has never assumed the complexion of a scorbutic ulcer, which is distinguished by the dark-coloured fungous mass lying over its surface, that on being removed is quickly regenerated, and is commonly attended with some symptoms of scurvy, such as soft swellings of the legs, spongy gums, and fallow looks; on the contrary, in this ulcer, when the putrid parts separate, the surface is of a light florid colour. The scorbutic sore is seldom painful; our ulcer is attended at times with exquisite torment.

* 4thly. It has not been relieved by large quantities of lemon-juice, even to a bottle *per diem*: nay, we have thought that in some cases much harm was done by this practice in the first stage.

* 5thly. We have not been able to distinguish particular consti-

tutions more liable to be affected with it than others, except the strong and robust; nor have seamen been more exempt from it than landmen.

6thly. It has occurred in ships where every attention is paid to exact discipline, cleanliness, ventilation, and every circumstance connected with preserving health. It has also been treated by some of the most experienced and able surgeons in the navy: and there is nothing peculiar to the soil surrounding the ports of the Channel where it has appeared.' p. 196.

Dr. Trotter thinks the disease owing to a high degree of excitement, rapidly destroying life. We own, that we suspect a specific infection, and see many appearances of a contagious nature. No particular treatment seems to have been singularly successful, though the doctor strongly recommends very early and active depletion by bleeding, both generally and topically, purging, &c. with the coldest applications. In ulcers, supposed to be of a similar kind, though probably scorbutic, Dr. Harness has found the gastric juice highly useful. Mr. Hamnick, of Plymouth, has discovered hops to be a very serviceable ingredient in poultices applied to ulcers.

Mr. Reilly's observations on the effects of nitrous gas on ulcers, are not very prepossessing in favour of the remedy, or of its salutary effect in general. Blood, exposed to this gas, grew darker than in open air. His description of a chameleon is too curious to pass by unnoticed, and, in a work of such a different nature, it may occasionally be unobserved by the cursory reader.

About the time I commenced my experiments, Mr. Pritchard, master of his majesty's ship Prince, presented me with a chameleon, that had been sent him by a gentleman from Saffia in Barbary, which extraordinary production of nature I remarked with particular attention every morning after fumigating. On the admission of atmospheric air I had this animal brought into the berth, and as regularly observed his colour change to a variegated black, which in no small degree excited my curiosity: unthinkingly, I one morning allowed it to remain in the berth during the fumigating process, which, I am sorry to say, ended its existence. I found, when it was dead, its colour was black, the reason of which I shall attempt to explain. As this animal is not known in England, I examined the comparative anatomy of the thorax and abdominal viscera, these being the only parts I dissected, having stuffed his body; which will fully account for the singular phenomenon that takes place in its changing to the same colour with the object placed before it. On opening to view the thorax and abdomen, there appears no mediastinum, but a thorough communication, without any intervening substance; the whole space of which is filled by three bladders, the middle and smallest of them may be called with propriety the ves-

phagus and stomach. It is firmly attached to the os hyoides, and terminates in the anus. The other two bladders are attached to the trachæa, and in every respect perform the office of lungs; and the animal can at discretion fill itself out to a large size, by inflating these vesicles, which are extremely pellucid, and, when inflated, fill completely the whole of the abdominal cavity, where there is no other substance but these transparent membranes; and the change of colour that takes place is occasioned by the reflection of any other colour on these transparent membranes, as the skin of the animal is extremely thin, and between the cellular substance and the skin is a filamentary expansion of the membranes; which pellucid or transparent membrane serves as a lens or mirror to reflect the rays of colour when objects are placed before it. A very clear demonstration of this is, that when a collapse takes place, which is not unfrequent, it is not influenced by colour; and, on the contrary, when these bladders are full, its colour is influenced by the object placed in competition, but scarlet more particularly, from its being more vivid. I doubt much whether nature has designed this animal to live on food or not, from the following circumstance: that I very frequently gave it flies, which it never appeared to swallow with avidity; and I believe, if it were possessed of the power of returning them, that it would have done so; and in dissecting it I found the whole of the flies unaltered in this middle space; and, as a farther proof, from the part of the cyst where the flies were, to its termination, was so closely filled with bezoar-mineral, that the most minute substance could not have passed. This, in my opinion, clearly proves that nature did not design it to live on food; or, if it had, that its fæces were of the bezoar mineral.

‘The tongue of this extraordinary animal is seven inches long, and in appearance like the sucker of a pump, with two apertures. The expansion of the nerves are beautiful, having no muscular substance to cover their colour: I counted distinctly twenty-nine pair; they in every degree perform the office of muscles, and all motion is performed by them the same as by the muscles in other animals. The eyes are of a very particular structure; they are very prominent, with a small pupil; and the animal can look forward with one, and back with the other, at the same time. Its colour, when not influenced by objects, is a bluish grey, beautifully variegated with small yellow spots; its body about seven inches long; its head about an inch and one half, handsomely helmeted; its tail about five inches long, which it makes as much use of as any of its legs, particularly when descending from heights; it is of the oviparous class, resembles much, only smaller and handsomer, the gauana of the West-Indies.’ P. 237.

Mr. Reilly's experience also is not in favour of the effects of fumigation with nitrous vapour, in destroying contagion; nor, according to Dr. Trotter's idea, are the effects of the ace-

um nitrosum (nitre dissolved in vinegar) more useful in scurvy. Indeed, from the authority of captain Pendar, and his officers, he doubts of the existence of the disease, in any great degree, in the ship, where the remedy was said to have been employed with such extraordinary success, and in such large doses.

Some singular surgical cases, with Dr. Trotter's circular letter, requesting assistance, conclude the particular subjects of the volume.

In the Appendix are different American theses, those of doctors Saltonstall, Bay, and Lent, explaining Dr. Mitchell's theory of the septic acid, with his defence of the soap and tallow-chandlers, whose business was suspected to be noxious to the human frame, but was found (particularly during the prevalence of putrid epidemics) highly salubrious. Septon is Dr. Mitchell's term for azote. If we can procure these theses*, we shall examine the subject more particularly. What Dr. Trotter has published in this Appendix are extracts only.

Outlines of a Philosophy of the History of Man. (Continued from p. 10 of the present Volume.)

IN treating of the northern nations, M. Herder speaks first of the Basques, the Gael, and the Cimbri. In his account of these races we think we perceive a little confusion. He distinguishes, with propriety, the Celts from the Goths, which, even by authors of some pretensions to the knowledge of ancient history, are sometimes confounded; but he is not sufficiently exact in discriminating the Belgic from the Celtic Gauls, or from the Cimbri; and he assigns to the Gael the druidical system, with which they certainly had not the slightest connection. Probably the Gascon, the Gael, and the Cumraig races were wholly of Celtic origin: though they differ in language and in customs from each other, they differ more from the Gothic nations. Indeed the wandering tribes of Celts, in distant situations, may have easily changed in all these respects, and their various names may have been appellatives from their situation, as the name Cimbri means inhabitants of the mountains.

The Lettonians and the Prussians are joined by our author with the Fins. They are evidently Finnish tribes which settled on the coasts of the Baltic, and are found scattered in the neighbouring countries in every direction. They were never conquerors, but in modern times, when incorporated with the Germans, and are, in our opinion, scyons of a north-eastern

* As they are not on sale in this country, we should be obliged to any correspondent for the loan of them.

race, which we may again meet with under the appellation of Sclavonians.

Adverting to the German nations, M. Herder traces the source of their military spirit, their ardour, and their success.

‘ In the most ancient history of the Germans, therefore, it is necessary to guard ourselves against any partial attachment to a favourite spot for our modern constitution; with this the ancient Germans had no concern; they followed the course of a different stream of nations. Westward they pressed on the Belgians and Gael, till they had seated themselves in the midst of other tribes: they passed eastward as far as the Baltic; and when this put a stop to their progress and their plunder, as its sandy coasts were unable to support them, they naturally turned southward, the first opportunity, into countries that had been evacuated. Hence many of the nations, that invaded the Roman empire, had previously dwelt on the shores of the Baltic: but these were only the more barbarous, whose residence there was by no means the occasion of the shock that was given to the power of Rome. This we must seek at a greater distance, in the Asiatic country of Mungalia: for there the western Huns were pressed upon by the Iugurians and other nations; in consequence they crossed the Wolga, fell upon the Alans on the Don, and the great kingdom of the Goths on the Black Sea, and thus many southern German nations, the Ostrogoths and Visigoths, Vandals, Alans, and Suevi, were set in motion, and the Huns followed them. With the Saxons, Franks, and Burgundians, the case was different; as it was with the Heruli, who long served in the Roman armies, as heroes that sold their blood for pay.

‘ We must likewise take care not to ascribe similar manners, or a like degree of civilization, to all these people, as appears from the difference of their conduct towards the nations they conquered. The savage Saxons in Britain, the roaming Alans and Suevi in Spain, conducted themselves not as the Ostrogoths in Italy, or the Burgundians in Gaul. The tribes that had long dwelt on the Roman frontiers, near their colonies and places of trade, in the west or south, were more mild and polished, than those who came from the barren sea-coasts, or from the forests of the north: hence it would be arrogance if every horde of Germans were to ascribe to itself, for instance, the mythology of the Scandinavian Goths. How far did not these Goths advance? and in how many ways was not this mythology afterwards refined? The brave primitive German, perhaps, can claim nothing but his Theut or Tuisto, Mann, Hertha, and Wodan, that is, a father, a hero, the earth, and a general.’ p. 480.

The Sclavonians once possessed the vast territory from the Don to the Elbe, and from the Adriatic to the Baltic Seas. They are represented as peaceful cultivators, occupying the land which others had left, and with little spirit or inclination

for conquest, not greatly inclined to make a steady and active resistance. The Franks, the Danes, and the Germans, contributed to ruin their establishments, and circumscribe their limits, and they now calmly cultivate a fine country from the Don to the Muldaw, and from the Adriatic to the Carpathian Mountains. The foreign races in Europe complete the author's view of modern nations.

In the extensive migrations from the mountains of Asia to the north and west, different tribes successively occupied the countries on each point, without any bond of union, without civilisation, without literature, except what they borrowed from the east, or necessity compelled them to invent. A new instrument of civilisation, a new bond of union was required, and this instrument, this link, was Christianity. The seventeenth book is therefore devoted to an examination of the origin and progress of the Christian religion. M. Herder explains the simple unadorned form of real Christianity, and soon proceeds to speak of its progress in the East, in the Grecian and Roman provinces. These steps we cannot follow; but what relates to the progress of Christianity in the East is the most novel, and the most interesting part. In our author's opinion it gave a new spirit to the doctrines of Budha and Fo; and, if it did not establish the sect of the Bonzes, the monastic system of the Lamas and Telapoints, it at least added to the fervor and stability of such institutions. The Nestorian bishop of Asia may have been the Prester John of the travellers in the middle ages; and from his ashes the Lama of Thibet, with an indolence and inactivity of a more southern climate, may have arisen.

Before M. Herder investigates the progress of Christianity among barbarous nations, he considers shortly their situation from the period when they obtruded themselves forcibly on the notice of the more southern nations. He first speaks of the Sueves, Visigoths, Alans, and Vandals. The establishment of the Gothic kingdom in Spain is boldly as well as accurately delineated, and the source of the connection between the civil and religious powers, or more properly between despotism and superstition, well explained. The remains of the Vandals passed into Africa, and flourished only during the short and victorious reign of Genseric.

The Ostrogoths and Lombards are next mentioned, and to the latter is attributed the establishment of the feudal system in its greatest extent. As their country will now perhaps assume a new and more permanent form under the name of the Cisalpine republic, we may be indulged in transcribing our author's account of its earlier state.

Hence (upon the death of the Lombard monarch Alpoïn) arose six and thirty dukes, and the first Lombard-German constitution in Italy

was established. For when the nation, compelled by necessity, again elected a king, every powerful feudatory for the most part acted as he pleased. Often the king was even deprived of the choice of these; and at last his power of ruling and employing his vassals depended solely on his precarious personal authority. Thus arose the dukes of Friuli, Spoleto, and Benevento; who were soon followed by others: for the country abounded with cities, in which here a duke, there a count, could establish himself. Thus, however, the kingdom of Lombardy was enfeebled, and could have been much more easily extirpated than that of the Goths, had Constantinople possessed a Justinian, a Belisarius, and [or] a Narses. Yet even in this feeble state it was capable of destroying the remains of the exarchate; though its own fall was prepared by it. The bishop of Rome, who wished only for a weak and divided government in Italy, beheld the Lombards too powerful and too near. Having no longer any assistance to expect from Constantinople, Stephen crossed the mountains; flattered Pepin, the usurper of the crown of the Franks, with the honour of being a protector of the church; anointed him legitimate king of France; and accepted as a reward the five cities, even previous to the commencement of the campaign, in which they were to be conquered, and the exarchate, yet to be taken from the Lombards.

Charlemagne, the son of Pepin, completed his father's work; and subdued, with his overwhelming power, the Lombard kingdom. In recompense he was created, by the holy father, patrician of Rome, and protector of the church, and proclaimed and crowned emperor of the Romans, as if by the inspiration of the spirit. The effect of this proclamation on Europe in general will hereafter appear: to Italy the consequence of this masterly cast of the fisherman's net was the irreparable loss of the Lombard kingdom. During the two centuries of its continuance, it had promoted the population of the ravaged and exhausted country; it had diffused security and happiness through the land, by means of Germanic order and equity; while every state was permitted either to adopt the Lombard laws, or to retain its own. The jurisprudence of the Lombards was concise, methodical, and effective: their laws remained in force long after their kingdom was destroyed. Even Charlemagne, by whom it was overturned, still allowed them to be valid, only with additions of his own. In several parts of Italy they continued to be the common law, in conjunction with the Roman; and found admirers and expositors, even when the Justinian code became paramount at the command of the emperor.' P. 535.

Since the time of Charlemagne, who added Lombardy to his possessions, and transmitted it as an hereditary portion to his children; since the Roman imperial title, too, unfortunately came into Germany, and this poor land, throughout which uniformity of sen-

ment could never prevail, had to draw with Italy in the dangerous harness of numerous and various feudal bands; and before an emperor had recommended the written law of Lombardy, and added it to the Justinian code; the constitution, that formed its base, was certainly not calculated for the advantage of many districts, bare of towns, and poor in arts. Owing to the ignorance and prejudices of the times, the law of the Lombards at length passed for the general feudal law of the empire: and thus these people still survive in their customs, which, properly speaking, were raked out of their ashes to be condensed into laws.

The state of the church, likewise, was much affected by this constitution. At first the Lombards, as well as the Goths, were Arians: but when Gregory the Great succeeded in bringing over queen Theodolinda, the muse of her nation, to the orthodox faith, the zeal of the new converts soon displayed itself in good works. Kings, dukes, counts, and barons, emulated each other in building convents, and endowing the church with ample additions to its patrimony. The church of Rome enjoyed possessions of this kind from Sicily to Mount Cenis. For as the fiefs of temporal lords were hereditary, why should not those of the spiritual be the same, who had to provide for an eternity of successors? Every church acquired with its patrimony some saint for a protector; and men had continually to gain the favour of this patron, as an intercessor with God. His image and his relics, his festival and his prayers, worked miracles; these miracles produced fresh presents; so that what with the continual gratitude of the saint, on the one hand, and that of the feudatories, their wives, and children, on the other, there was no such thing as striking a balance of the account. The feudal constitution itself passed in some measure into the church. For as the duke took precedence of the count, the bishop who sat by the duke's side would maintain precedence of a count's bishop: thus the temporal dukedom became the diocese of an archbishop; the bishops of subordinate cities were converted into suffragans of a spiritual duke. The wealthy abbots, as spiritual barons, endeavoured to withdraw themselves from the jurisdiction of their bishops, and render themselves independent. The bishop of Rome, who thus became a spiritual emperor, or king, willingly allowed this independance, and prepared the principles, which the false Isidorus afterwards publicly established for the whole catholic church. The numerous festivals, acts of devotion, masses, and offices, demanded a multitude of clerical functionaries: the treasures of the church, and sacerdotal garments, which were suited to the barbarian taste, required their sacristan; the patrimonial possessions, their rectors; all ultimately terminating in a spiritual and temporal patron, a pope and emperor; so that church and state rivalled each other in one feudal constitution. The fall of the Lombard kingdom was the birth of a pope, and with him of a new emperor, whence the whole

constitution of Europe assumed a new form. For the face of the world is not changed by conquest alone; but still more by new views of things, by new dispositions, laws, and rights.' P. 537.

The history of the Allemans, Burgundians, and Franks, is a sketch only, but a masterly one, and traces the origin of their monarchy till it attained a vast unwieldly magnitude under Charlemagne. The kingdoms of the Saxons, Normans, and Danes are described with equal spirit. From the piracies of those adventurers arose the early naval power of the northern nations, and, from the energy infused by the mixture of other nations, and the spring imparted by the spirit and example of successive conquerors, M. Herder derives the peculiar excellence of the British character. A short account of the northern kingdoms and Germany, and a general view of the institution of the German principalities in Europe, conclude the eighteenth book.

In this part of the work we perceive the luminous compression, and often the philosophic energy of Gibbon, whom our author highly praises, and whose opinions he frequently adopts. 'The cry against this work,' he adds in a note, 'as if the author were an enemy to the Christian religion, seems to me unjust, for Gibbon has spoken of Christianity, as of other matters in his history, with great mildness.'

The Romish hierarchy, its policy, its effects and influence on political states, and the progress of literature and commerce, are next considered. These lead the author to the Arabs, who, in the last departments, had a great influence on Europe in the middle ages, and, by developing the faculties of the human mind, on the History of Man. The spirit of commerce and the taste of chivalry had equal effect in divesting the mind of those savage notions which war alone inspires. On the latter subject, our author's light sketch, for it can aspire to no more, is highly interesting. The croisades, which have been supposed a powerful engine in enlightening the rude warrior, and expanding the untutored mind, had, in M. Herder's opinion, but a partial effect. It was one of the impulses, either collateral or oblique, which, at the same time, concurred to give new energy and activity to the views and exertions of Europeans, and was assisted by commerce, by chivalry (the parent rather than the offspring of the croisades), the progress of arts and sciences, the emancipation of cities, &c. It is perhaps, as our author alleges, 'a mere phantom of the brain to frame one prime source of events out of seven distinct expeditions, undertaken in a period of two centuries, by different nations, and from various motives, solely because they bore one common name.' Leaving therefore these supposed causes, our author ultimately looks for the modern improvements of the human race in the

cultivation of reason, which has operated with such success in dispelling ancient prejudices of every kind, and in the various discoveries and institutions which have assisted its progress.

Such is M. Herder's work, which from its nature must be unequal, but which, in many parts, we can cheerfully and unreservedly praise, and honestly commend as a whole. The translator has executed his task with great ability; but we wish that, of some parts, he had given only an abridged view, that he had corrected some errors, and supplied the additional discoveries made since the period of the publication. This may perhaps be done, in another edition, without greatly adding to its bulk.

The Piccolomini, or the First Part of Wallenstein, a Drama in Five Acts. Translated from the German of Frederick Schiller by S. T. Coleridge.

The Death of Wallenstein, a Tragedy in Five Acts. Translated from the German of Frederick Schiller by S. T. Coleridge.
8vo. 8s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1800.

THE name of Schiller will no doubt awaken the attention of the admirers of impassioned writing; and many sublime effusions from Mr. Coleridge's own pen must prepare our readers to expect from his competency an interesting translation of these announced dramas of the German Shakspeare. On a perusal of the first of them, our feelings, however, sanctioned the prediction of Mr. Coleridge, as thus expressed in his preface to *The Death of Wallenstein*.

'The admirers of Schiller, who have abstracted their idea of that author from the *Robbers*, and the *Cabal and Love*, plays in which the main interest is produced by the excitement of curiosity, and in which the curiosity is excited by terrible and extraordinary incident, will not have perused without some portion of disappointment the dramas which it has been my employment to translate.' P. ii.

The *Piccolomini* exhibits the impetuous Wallenstein, from the double impulse of ambition and injury, as concerting treason against his sovereign, seducing his army from their allegiance, and exciting them to revolt to the Swedes; but as thwarted in his schemes by Octavio Piccolomini, who, under the mask of friendship, becomes a spy upon his conduct, and betrays him to his ruin. The scene is laid at Pilsen, the headquarters of the imperial forces, and the unity of time and place is strictly adhered to. The first act opens with a dialogue between Illo, Butler, and Isolani, three of Wallenstein's officers, which obscurely intimates the discontent of the army at the

proceedings of the imperial court, and their treasonable attachment to their general. The reception which these officers give to Questenberg the imperial envoy, who arrives with a commission to dismiss the general from his command, still more plainly indicates the disorderly spirit which pervades the camp.

The third scene discloses the character of Octavio Piccolomini, who confirms Questenberg's opinion of the disaffection of Wallenstein, but assures him of his complete knowledge of his projects, and of his power and resolution to thwart them.

The fourth scene introduces on the stage Max. the son of Octavio Piccolomini, who has just arrived in the camp as an escort to the wife of Wallenstein and the princess Thekla his daughter, for whom, during their journey, he has conceived a strong attachment. The character of Max. is well drawn. Brave, generous, and open-hearted, inspired with a soldier's prejudices against the supposed enemies of his general, he treats Questenberg with contempt.

In the sixth scene an extraordinary trait in the character of Wallenstein is discovered by the appearance of Seni, an astrologer whom he maintains in his suite for the purpose of consulting the stars. A conversation between the general and his wife in the ensuing scene opens to us the hostile disposition of the cabinet of Vienna and the prospect of Wallenstein's disgraceful dismissal. Convinced of the approach of this humiliating event, he confirms himself in the resolution of raising the standard of revolt.

‘ O! they force, they thrust me
With violence, against my own will, onward!’ P. 36.

Thekla is now introduced to her father, who in the following speech develops his ambitious designs.

‘ I was indignant at my destiny
That it denied me a man-child to be
Heir of my name and of my prosperous fortune,
And re-illumine my soon extinguish'd being
In a proud line of princes.
I wrong'd my destiny. Here upon this head,
So lovely in its maiden bloom, will I
Let fall the garland of a life of war,
Nor deem it lost, if only I can wreathe it
Transmitted to a regal ornament,
Around these beauteous brows.’ P. 38.

Count Tertsky, brother to Wallenstein, urges him, in the tenth scene, to execute his intentions, and immediately revolt to the Swedes. During their conversation they are joined by Illo, who announces the resolution of the army to remonstrate against their beloved general's dismissal from the command,

Immediately after this conference ensues a very spirited scene, in which Questenberg details the emperor's orders in a full council of war. These orders the officers present show themselves determined to resist; and with this tumultuous avowal of their determination the first act closes.

The second act chiefly advances the progress of the action by the execution of a plot of Illo's, the outlines of which he thus discloses to Tertsky.

' *Illo.* Attend! We frame a formal declaration,

Wherein we to the duke consign ourselves

Collectively, to be and to remain

His both with life and limb, and not to spare

The last drop of our blood for him, provided

So doing we infringe no oath or duty,

We may be under to the emp'ror.—Mark!

This reservation we expressly make

In a particular clause, and save the conscience.

Now hear! This formula so fram'd and worded

Will be presented to them for perusal

Before the banquet. No one will find in it

Cause of offence or scruple. Hear now further!

After the feast, when now the vap'ring wine

Opens the heart, and shuts the eyes, we let

A counterfeited paper, in the which

This one particular clause has been left out,

Go round for signatures.' P. 66.

The execution of this project is exhibited in a banquet scene, which closes the act; and which in representation must compose a striking and magnificent spectacle.

The third act, though short, drags itself, 'like a wounded snake,' slowly and heavily along. It is almost entirely occupied by a conversation of the elder Piccolomini with his son; in which he discloses the treasonable designs of Wallenstein, and endeavours to persuade him to desert his standard. The crafty policy of the father is however skilfully contrasted with the ingenuous openness and liberal sentiments of the youthful soldier.

The fourth act opens with an astrological conference between Wallenstein and Seni, which is interrupted by the unwelcome tidings that a messenger whom Wallenstein had sent with dispatches to the Swedes had been arrested and conducted to Vienna. Finding himself by this accident compelled to precipitate the measures he had already projected, the general expresses his emotions in the following fine soliloquy, which inculcates a most serious and important moral.

' Is it possible ?

Is't so? I can no longer what I would ?

No longer draw back at my liking? - I
 Must do the deed because I thought of it,
 And fed this heart here with a dream? Because
 I did not scowl temptation from my presence,
 Dallied with thoughts of possible fulfilment,
 Commenced no movement, left all time uncertain,
 And only kept the road, the access open?
 By the great God of Heaven! It was not
 My serious meaning, it was ne'er resolve,
 I but amus'd myself with thinking of it.
 The free-will tempted me, the power to do
 Or not to do it.—Was it criminal
 To make the fancy minister to hope,
 To fill the air with pretty toys of air,
 And clutch fantastic sceptres moving t'ward me?
 Was not the will kept free? Beheld I not
 The road of duty close beside me—but
 One little step, and once more I was in it!
 Where am I? Whither have I been transported?
 No road, no track behind me, but a wall,
 Impenetrable, insurmountable,
 Rises obedient to the spells I mutter'd
 And meant not—my own doings tower behind me.' P. 155.

At this juncture arrives Wrangel, a Swedish general, empowered to conclude the treacherous negotiation which Wallenstein has long proposed. Wallenstein, however, is still irresolute. He hesitates to consummate his treason till his last spark of virtue is extinguished by the daring remonstrances of his sister, the countess Tertsky, who thus assails him on his weak side.

'Countess. Then betwixt thee and him (confess it, Friedland!)
 The point can be no more of right and duty,
 Only of power and the opportunity.
 That opportunity, lo! it comes yonder,
 Approaching with swift steeds; then with a swing
 Throw thyself up into the chariot seat,
 Seize with firm hand the reins, ere thy opponent
 Anticipate thee, and himself make conquest
 Of the now empty seat. The moment comes,
 It is already here, when thou must write
 The absolute total of thy life's vast sum.
 The constellations stand victorious o'er thee,
 The planets shoot good fortune in fair junctions,
 And tell thee, "Now's the time!" The starry courses
 Hast thou thy life long measur'd to no purpose?
 The quadrant and the circle, were they play-things?
 (pointing to the different objects in the room)

The zodiacs, the rolling orbs of heaven,
Hast pictur'd on these walls, and all around thee
In dumb foreboding symbols has thou plac'd
These seven presiding lords of destiny—
For toys? Is all this preparation nothing?
Is there no marrow in this hollow art,
That even to thyself it doth avail
Nothing, and has no influence over thee
In the great moment of decision? —

'Wal. (during this last speech walks up and down with inward struggles, labouring with passions; stops suddenly, stands still, then interrupting the countess,)

Send Wrangel to me—I will instantly
Dispatch three couriers——' P. 179.

A confidential conversation on the part of Wallenstein with his betrayer Octavio Piccolomini introduces the fifth act. At the close of this conference Max. enters, to whom Wallenstein communicates his projected rebellion, and requires his assistance in its accomplishment. Max. is struck with horror at the communication, and vainly endeavours to persuade the general to desist. Finding that his persuasions have no effect he leaves him abruptly. Tertsky and Illo then enter, and endeavour to convince Wallenstein of the insidious designs of the elder Piccolomini. Wallenstein, however, disbelieves them, and thus states the foundation of his assurance.

' There exist moments in the life of man,
When he is nearer the great soul of the world
Than is man's custom, and possesses freely
The power of questioning his destiny :
And such a moment 'twas, when in the night
Before the action in the Plains of Lützen,
Leaning against a tree, thoughts crowding thoughts,
I look'd out far upon the ominous plain.
My whole life, past and future, in this moment
Before my mind's-eye glided in procession,
And to the destiny of the next morning
The spirit, fill'd with anxious presentiment,
Did knit the most removed futurity.
Then said I also to myself, " So many
Dost thou command. They follow all thy stars,
And as on some great number set their all
Upon thy single head, and only man
The vessel of thy fortune. Yet a day
Will come, when destiny shall once more scatter
All these in many a several direction :
Few be they who will stand out faithful to thee."
I yearn'd to know which one was faithfullest

Of all, this camp include. Great Destiny,
 Give me a sign! And he shall be the man,
 Who, on the approaching morning, comes the first
 To meet me with some token of his love:
 And thinking this, I fell into a slumber.
 Then midmost in the battle was I led
 In spirit. Great the pressure and the tumult!
 Then was my horse kill'd under me: I sank;
 And over me away, all unconcernedly,
 Drove horse and rider—and thus trod to pieces
 I lay, and panted like a dying man.
 Then seiz'd me suddenly a saviour arm.
 It was Octavio's—I awoke at once.
 'Twas broad day, and Octavio stood before me.
 "My brother," said he, "do not ride to-day
 The dapple, as you're wont; but mount the horse
 Which I have chosen for thee. Do it brother!
 In love to me. A strong dream warn'd me so."
 It was the swiftness of this horse that snatch'd me
 From the hot pursuit of Bannier's dragoons.
 My cousin rode the dapple on that day,
 And never more saw I or horse or rider.' P. 193.

In spite, however, of the superstitious assurance of Wallenstein, Octavio employs the precious moments of delay in estranging from the general's interests Isolani and Butler, the latter of whom determines to remain in Wallenstein's camp for the purpose of revenging an injury, which, according to the representation of Piccolomini, the general had done him by a letter to the imperial court. The drama thus concludes with the refusal of Max. Piccolomini to quit the camp together with his father.

'Oth. How? not one look
 Of filial love? No grasp of the hand at parting?
 It is a bloody war, to which we are going,
 And the event uncertain and in darkness.
 So us'd we not to part—it was not so!
 Is it then true? I have a son no longer!

(Max. falls into his arms, they hold each for a long time in a speechless embrace, then go away at different sides.)

P. 214.

And truly may it be said, that this is a 'most lame and impotent conclusion.' Nothing is decided—the fate of the principal characters hangs in suspense—all is dark and uncertain: and upon a review of the whole drama we must, however unwillingly, acknowledge that it is flat and tedious. The author seems indeed to have intended it merely as an introduction to *The Death of Wallenstein*.

In this latter tragedy, 'Schiller is himself again.' Its action is rapid; its events interesting. It abounds in pathetic incidents and moving speeches. The moral which it inculcates is correct and highly important.

The three first scenes of *The Death of Wallenstein* are of a domestic nature, and exhibit the countess Tertsky instigating Thekla to use her influence over Max. Piccolomini to induce him to desert his duty to the emperor, and bind himself to the fortunes of her father. The princess is unwilling to understand the true nature of Wallenstein's designs; but when at length the truth is plainly disclosed, she bursts forth into the following pathetic exclamation.

'O my fore-boding bosom! Even now,
E'en now 'tis here, that icy hand of horror!
And my young hope lies shuddering in its grasp.
I knew it well—no sooner had I enter'd,
An heavy ominous presentiment
Reveal'd to me that spirits of death were hov'ring
Over my happy fortune. But why think I
First of myself? My mother! O, my mother!' P. 6.

The affectionate timidity of the duchess, the wife of Wallenstein, is feelingly depicted in the ensuing dialogue, which is interrupted by the intervention of Wallenstein and Illo. The former, oppressed with care, desires his daughter to soothe his spirits by a song.

'Come here, my sweet girl! Seat thee by me,
For there is a good spirit on thy lips.
Thy mother prais'd to me thy ready skill:
She says a voice of melody dwells in thee,
Which doth enchant the soul. Now such a voice
Will drive away for me the evil dæmon
That beats his black wings close above my head.' P. 13.

Thekla, unable, on account of the agitation of her heart, to comply with her father's request, abruptly retires. This gives the countess Tertsky an opportunity of disclosing to her brother the mutual love of his daughter and the younger Piccolomini. Of this passion Wallenstein sternly disapproves. The discussion of the matter, however, is closed by the abrupt arrival of Tertsky to announce the revolt of several of the regiments, and among the rest of the troops of Isolani, from the cause of their general. Tertsky is soon followed by Illo, who communicates further particulars of the disaffection of the army. Wallenstein now looks for comfort and advice from the treacherous Butler, who remains with him apparently from motives of friendship, but in reality with a determination to

ensure his ruin. In this truly pathetic scene, Butler announces to the general the failure of his designs upon the city of Prague. On the receipt of this intelligence, Wallenstein thus expresses the emotions of a determined mind.

'Tis decided!
 'Tis well! I have receiv'd a sudden cure
 From all the pangs of doubt: with steady stream
 Once more my life-blood flows! My soul's secure!
 In the night only Friedland's stars can beam.
 Ling'ring, irresolute, with fitful fears
 I drew the sword—'twas with an inward strife,
 While yet the choice was mine. The murd'rous knife
 Is lifted for my heart! Doubt disappears!
 I fight now for my head and for my life.' P. 31.

In the beginning of the second act, Wallenstein receives a deputation from the regiment of Pappenheim, who, on behalf of their constituents, demand from him a declaration of his intentions with respect to the emperor. In his conference with this deputation, the imperial commander displays all the arts of popularity. But when he has almost persuaded the delegated soldiers to adopt his quarrel, he is interrupted by Butler, who designedly enters to announce an open declaration of insurrection which has been made by count Tertsky's regiment. These tidings disgust the deputies, who retire; and, in the course of a few minutes the Pappenheimers are heard in uproar, demanding Max. Piccolomini their colonel, whom they imagine to be detained as a prisoner in Wallenstein's palace. Max. has, in fact, concealed himself in the palace, and now comes forward avowing to her father his love for Thekla. The act closes with the departure of Max. who is torn from the arms of his mistress by his soldiers, who rush into the palace to rescue him from apprehended danger.

In the third act the scene is transferred to Egra, to which fortress the discomfited Wallenstein is determined to retire. He has dispatched Butler to prepare all things for his reception. Butler arrives, and intimates to Gordon, the governor, that Wallenstein is attainted of treason, and demands his co-operation in executing the sentence of death to which the emperor has doomed him. While Butler is thus endeavouring to inspire the governor, who dislikes this commission, Wallenstein enters, and inquires into the state of the town and garrison. A courier now arrives with the tidings of the death of Max. Piccolomini, who, urged on by despair, was slain together with all his regiment in a furious onset on a superior body of Swedes. This intelligence hastens the designs of Butler, who resolves to murder the general that very night.

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At the commencement of the fourth act Butler thus opens the detail of his plot against the life of Wallenstein.

‘ Find me twelve strong dragoons, arm them with pikes,
For there must be no firing——
Conceal them some-where near the banquet-room,
And soon as the desert is serv’d up, rush all in
And cry—Who is loyal to the emperor?
I will overturn the table—while you attack
Illo and Tertsky, and dispatch them both.
The castle-palace is well barr’d and guarded,
That no intelligence of this proceeding
May make its way to the duke.’ P. 97.

The subsequent conference between Butler and his subordinate agents is spun out to an unwarrantable length; but it contains many true touches of nature. Rich amends are, however, made for the faults of this scene by scenes III. and IV. than which we remember nothing more pathetic in the whole range of dramatic writing. In these scenes Thekla, who had accidentally heard of the death of her lover, is indulged with the particulars of the event from the messenger who brought the sad intelligence.

In the first scene of the fifth act the reader is thus solemnly prepared for the approaching horrors.

‘ *Wal. (rises and strides across the saloon.)* The night’s far spent. Betake thee to thy chamber.

‘ *Countess.* Bid me not go, O let me stay with thee!

‘ *Wal. (moves to the window.)* There is a busy motion in the heaven,

The wind doth chace the flag upon the tower,
Fast fly the clouds, the fickle of the moon,
Struggling, darts snatches of uncertain light.

No form of star is visible! That one
White stain of light, that single glimm’ring yonder,
Is from Cassiopeia, and therein

Is Jupiter. (*a pause.*) But now
The blackness of the troubled element hides him!

(*he sinks into profound melancholy, and looks vacantly into the distance.*)

‘ *Countess.* (*looks on him mournfully, then grasps his hand.*)
What art thou brooding on?

‘ *Wal.* Methinks,
If I but saw him, ’twould be well with me.
He is the star of my nativity,
And often marvellously hath his aspect
Shot strength into my heart.

‘ *Countess.* Thoul’t see him again.

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' *Wal.* (remains for a while with absent mind, then assumes a livelier manner, and turns suddenly to the countess.)

See him again? O never, never again.

' *Countess.* How?

' *Wal.* He is gone—is dust.

' *Countess.* Whom mean'st thou then?

' *Wal.* He the more fortunate! yea, he hath finish'd!

For him there is no longer any future—

His life is bright—bright without spot it was,

And cannot cease to be. No ominous hour

Knocks at his door with tidings of mis-hap.

Far off is he, above desire and fear;

No more submitted to the change and chance

Of the unsteady planets. O 'tis well

With him! but who knows what the coming hour

Veil'd in thick darkness brings for us!

' *Countess.* Thou speakest

Of Piccolomini.' P. 127.

After a conversation with Gordon and Seni, in which his confidence in his good fortune casts an additional interest upon his perilous circumstances, Wallenstein retires to repose. Butler and the assassins now enter reeking from the murder of Illo and Tertsky, whom they had surprised while revelling in a midnight banquet. The merciful agony of Gordon on the sight of these villains is thus expressed.

' *Gor.* He sleeps! O murder not the holy sleep!

' *But.* No! he shall die awake. (*is going.*)

' *Gor.* His heart still cleaves

To earthly things: he's not prepar'd to step

Into the presence of his God!

' *But.* (*going.*) God's merciful!

' *Gor.* (*holds him.*) Grant him but this night's respite.

' *But.* (*hurrying off.*) The next moment
May ruin all.

' *Gor.* (*holds him still.*) One hour! —————

' *But.* Unhold me! What

Can that short respite profit him?

' *Gor.* O—Time

Works miracles. In one hour many thousands

Of grains of sand run out; and quick as they,

Thought follows thought within the human soul.

Only one hour! Your heart may change its purpose,

His heart may change its purpose—some new tidings

May come! some fortunate event, decisive,

May fall from heaven and rescue him! O what

May not one hour achieve!' P. 145.

Butler is deaf to the governor's entreaties, and the foul deed is accomplished.

From an attentive examination of these dramas with the original, we have no hesitation in affirming that Mr. Coleridge's translation happily unites, for the most part, the qualities of fidelity and elegance. In many pages, however, he exhibits a surprising debility, becomes extremely prosaic, and degenerates into the most culpable carelessness. Amidst a variety of faulty passages, we will content ourselves with selecting the following.

' *This walk which you have ta'en me thro' the camp
Strikes my hopes prostrate.*' P. 15.

' *What! and not warn him either what bad hands
His lot has plac'd him in?*' P. 18.

' *They know about the emperor's requisitions,
And are tumultuous.*' P. 45.

' *How intend you
To manage with the generals at the banquet?*' P. 66.

Mr. Coleridge is the founder of a distinct school in poetry. He is deservedly regarded with much deference by many of his disciples: but the elevation he has attained on the Aonian mount imposes on him an obligation to study the art of correctness;—

Decipit exemplar vitiis imitabile:

and it were well if Mr. Coleridge would teach his pupils, both by precept and example, the art of blotting—would instruct them that hasty effusions require the file, that carelessness is not ease, and that obscurity in no instance constitutes the true sublime.

Prize Essays and Transactions of the Highland Society of Scotland. To which is prefixed, an Account of the Institution and principal Proceedings of the Society. By Henry Mackenzie, Esq. Vol. I. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

THE great object of the society is to inquire into the present state of the Highlands and islands of Scotland, the condition of their inhabitants, and the various means of their improvement. A subordinate object is the preservation of the language, poetry, and music of the Highlands.

From the very great merit of this institution, we cannot but express our surprise that the idea of such an establishment was not suggested till the year 1784; and that only in 1799 the

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labours of the society were first published. In various works which have occurred in our literary engagements, topics of this kind have often attracted our notice, and, in some measure, anticipated the subjects of these volumes, for we shall find the most interesting materials not brought sufficiently near the present period to be very attractive. If they do not accumulate fast, a portion of a volume should occasionally appear, which would join the charms of novelty to the advantages of early information.

The history of the society need not detain us. We shall select only the report on the Shetland wool, which deserves to be more generally known.

‘ From the information of the gentlemen abovementioned, it would appear, that the permanent fineness of the wool depends entirely upon the breed of sheep; for on the same pasture, and under the very same climate, sheep, with the finest, and with the coarsest wool, are maintained; in so much, that from the wool of the same flock, some stockings worth two guineas per pair, and others worth less than four-pence, are produced.

‘ 1. It would appear that there are two kinds of sheep producing fine wool to be found in these islands; one known by the name of the kindly sheep, whose whole body almost is covered with it; another whose wool is fine about the neck only, and other particular parts of the body. The colour of the fine wool also varies, sometimes being, in a great measure, of a pure white, at other times of a light grey, which is supposed to be the softest and most silky; sometimes of a black, and sometimes of a russet colour.

‘ 2. The sheep producing this wool are of a breed, which, for the sake of distinction, might be called the beaver sheep; for, like that animal, many of them have long hairs growing amongst the wool, which cover and shelter it, and the wool is a species of fine fur or down, which grows, in some measure, under their protection.

‘ 3. Your committee understand that the sheep producing this fine wool are of the hardiest nature, are never housed nor kept in any particular pasture; and that in the winter season they are often so pinched for food, that many of them are obliged to feed upon the sea-ware, or weed, driven to the shore. It is observed, however, that the healthiest sheep are those which live constantly upon the hills, and never touch the sea-ware.

‘ 4. Lastly, It appears that the Shetland sheep are never clipped or shorn, but that about the beginning of June the wool is pulled off (which is done without the smallest pain or injury to the animal) leaving the long hairs already mentioned, which shelter the young wool, and contribute to keep the animal warm and comfortable, at a season of the year when cold and piercing winds may occasionally be expected in so northern a latitude.

‘ As a proof how little the real value of the Shetland wool is known in that country, your committee thought it advisable to

have the following experiment tried. They directed some of the coarse Shetland stockings, sold at Edinburgh for about 5½d. per pair, to be purchased and decomposed, or reduced again to wool; the wool, after being carded, was delivered to Mr. Izett the hatter, who very obligingly agreed to try how far it might answer for the manufacture of hats, both by itself and with a mixture of other wool. The strength of the wool, it is evident, must have been much injured by being spun, knit, and afterwards untwisted and decomposed, yet the wool was found capable of being made into hats, and of considerably more value than the manufactured stockings.' P. xxxiii.

In a country like the Highlands, bold and abrupt in its outline; often barren without the assistance of art; broken by various inlets on its western coast, the chief object of the improver must be the riches which its shores afford, and the productions best suited to land of this peculiar kind. The fisheries and the manufacture of barilla offer a source of wealth and population under a well-regulated political system; for there is no reason why, with proper care, the sea-wrack on the rocky shores, and the culture of the plants which afford the fossil alkali on the flatter coasts towards the east, may not supply the whole kingdom with that useful article of manufacture. In the inland parts we have recommended sheep-walks in opposition to the modern system of increasing population, for we have lately seen that population may be increased too far, and multiplied in a degree greatly superior to its supply of corn. To depend on other nations for such supply may give activity to commerce, and, from its indispensable nature, may prevent long and destructive wars: but to require assistance in a large degree must contribute to exhaust the riches which an active and successful commerce in other respects affords. The immense sums paid by this country for corn should excite more attention than it seems to have done. With respect therefore to the Highlands, a quantity of arable land sufficient for its increase of population should be preserved; but we see no reason to wish for an increase of inhabitants beyond what its own arable can supply. On this account, sheep-walks and plantations should be particularly attended to in the interior, and on the coast the fisheries and the kelp.

These considerations seem to have influenced the Highland Society, as will appear from the subjects of their prize essays.

'An Essay on Kelp: containing the rise and progress of that manufacture in the north of Scotland; its present state; and the means of carrying it to a greater extent. By the Rev. Dr. Walker, Professor of Natural History in the University of Edinburgh.—On the Art of making Kelp, and of increasing the Growth of the Marine Plants from which it is made. By Mr. Angus Leaton, Canongate,

Edinburgh.—Observations on Kelp. By Mr. Robert Jameson, of Leith.—On the means of introducing the Linen Manufacture into the Highlands of Scotland. By Neil M'Vicar, Esq. Merchant, Edinburgh.—On the Spinning of Linen Yarn in Ross, Caithness, &c. By Mr. James Mill, Perthill Factory, Aberdeen.—On Inclosing. By Mr. John Wilson, of Harlet, Factor to the Earl of Glasgow.—On Green Crops. By Mr. Patrick Brodie, Tenant in Garvald near Haddington.—On the peculiar circumstances which tend to make the use of Horses almost universal, in Agricultural Operations, in the Highland districts of Scotland; with an Inquiry how far, and with what effects, Oxen might be substituted in their room. By Mr. T. Jolly, Minister, Dunnet, near Thurso, Caithness.—On the advantages of watering Pasture and Meadow Grounds in the Highlands. By John Smith, D.D. Minister of Campbeltown.—On the advantages of Planting, and raising Timber, in the Hebrides, and other parts of the west and north-west coasts of the Highlands. By the same.—On the species of Crops best adapted for the Highlands. By the same.—Letter to the Secretary of the Highland Society, on the foregoing subject. By Mr. George Robertson, of Granton, near Edinburgh.—On the propriety of burning Heath Grounds for the Improvement of Pasture. By Capt. Donald Smith, of the 84th Regiment.—Suggestions for promoting and improving the Fisheries upon the Coasts of the Highlands and Isles. By Mr. John Williams, of Gilmerton.—On the state of the Fisheries in the Islands of Zetland, 1786. By a Native of Zetland.—On the Fisheries. By Mr. William Ferguson, Shipmaster, Peterhead.—On the Fisheries, &c. By the Rev. Mr. Bradfute, Minister of Dunshire, Presbytery of Biggar.—An improved mode of preparing Peat-Fuel. Communicated by George Dempster, Esq. of Dunichen.—On the means of supplying the want of Coal, and providing Fuel on a Highland Estate, with the smallest loss of time and trouble to the Tenants. Author unknown.—Excerpts from "An Essay on the means of supplying the want of Coals, and of providing Fuel on a Highland Estate, with the smallest loss of time and trouble." By Mr. John Williams, of Gilmerton.—Remarks on some Corruptions which have been introduced into the Orthography and Pronunciation of the Gaelic; with proposals for removing them, and restoring the purity of the Language. By Capt. Donald Smith, of the 84th Regiment.—Letter from a Freeholder of Invernessshire to Lord Adam Gordon, dated 15th March, 1792:—On cutting a Canal between Inverness and Fort-William.—On the Practicability and advantages of opening a Navigation between the Murray Frith, at Inverness, and Loch Eil, at Fort-William. By the Rev. James Headrick. P. cxxiii.

The local importance of many of these subjects renders it unnecessary for us to enlarge on each essay. We shall only therefore add a few remarks on several of them, as they occur in their own order.

The manufacture of kelp was practised first in Scotland about the year 1720, and is now very considerable; the islands having afforded, from the year 1764 to 1772, almost 5000 tons. The state of the manufacture at present ought undoubtedly to have been mentioned; but, in general, it is admitted that the kelp on the shores is much more valuable than all the other productions of the islands conjointly. It is generally obtained from four species of fucus; viz. *F. nodosus*, *vesiculosus*, *ferratus*, and *digitatus*. By examining the nature of the shore which these plants chiefly inhabit, artificial beds of them may be procured, and the kelp may be advantageously cut every fourth year. The Highland Society attends only to the kelp produced from the fuci, but we suspect that plantations of the *falsola*, and similar marine plants may be attended with advantage. At present, the British kelp can only enter into competition with the foreign in consequence of the latter being loaded with a duty.

The essay on introducing the linen manufacture into the Highlands is truly patriotic; yet we fear there are many impediments to overcome before it can succeed. The cultivation of flax is a necessary preliminary; and the choice of situation can only be ascertained by careful experience. The essay on spinning enters into minute details, which are not interesting to the general reader. The essays on inclosing and green crops contain some very excellent remarks, but they are of local importance only.

From the essay on the use of horses we shall select some curious information.

‘ In process of time, however, when they came to pay more attention to tillage, the horse naturally appeared the properest animal to be employed; not only as being the most tractable, but as least valuable for other purposes; and, it may be added, the most easily supported. For, little provender was laid up for winter; and only given to the cows and youngest cattle in the severest weather. The horses were allowed to take their chance among the hills; nor were they ever brought near a house but when needed for any particular purpose. The person who could procure a few breeding mares, soon came, without much trouble, and with no expence, to have such a stock of horses as was sufficient to answer all the purposes of agriculture on that confined scale.

‘ Certainty is not pretended in this matter. It is sufficient for the present purpose that the reasons adduced be probable; and, what must add considerably to the probability of them, is, that the same practice prevails, to this day, in some parts of the Shetland Isles; presumed to be in a situation, in respect of agriculture, nearly similar to what some of the Highland districts of Scotland were at the period referred to. There, a man is often possessed of twenty or

thirty horses, while he does not labour above six or eight acres of land. These pasture at large among the hills; and are only caught at the particular times when their labour is required.' P. 128.

In general, horses were preferred because they could bear the severity of the winter's cold, provide for themselves in the hills, and were more easily recruited in spring. Even at present, except in large corn farms, they are still preferable.

The essay on watering offers nothing new to the English agriculturist; though Dr. Smith's recommendation of plantations may be read with advantage by every patriotic speculator. His advice and directions are indeed peculiarly appropriated to the Highlands, which certainly once abounded with wood, but whose growing prosperity will be greatly checked by the present want of it. Even arable land of an inferior quality should, as he remarks, be sacrificed to its cultivation. This author's observations on the species of crops best adapted to the Highlands are equally valuable.

Mr. Williamson's judicious advice for promoting the fisheries and preserving the woods merit high commendation. Various other communications on this subject are of great local importance. What relates to fuel is equally so; but not sufficiently interesting to the general reader to detain us. Captain Smith's remarks on the corruptions of the Gaelic would not be intelligible to many; but we shall select his concluding observations.

'The Gaelic language offers an interesting study to the Scottish antiquarian; as the surest guide to a knowledge of the customs, manners, and arts, of the ancient Caledonians. Thus, *saighder* (the word signifying a soldier) leads us back to the most ancient state of the military art in this country, when bows and arrows were the only weapons; and *biorlinn* (which signifies a boat) points out the origin of navigation in a very remote period of society, when the ingenuity of man had proceeded no farther than to hollow out a piece of wood, in which he could barely venture to cross over the unruffled pool of a narrow river.

'If the Gaelic antiquary join to the knowledge of his mother tongue an acquaintance with other ancient and original languages, his curiosity will derive an agreeable gratification from discovering their general resemblance. And he will be enabled, by comparing the same words, when occurring under different acceptations, to throw light on those dark ages of the world, to which the song of the bard and the record of the historian, however ancient, are but very imperfect guides.—*Creich*, in the Gaelic, denotes the cattle carried off from a neighbouring territory, whether by force or fraud. The same word, in the German, signifies war. Hence, then, we discover the origin of war, in predatory excursions, the only object of which was the gratification of hunger, an appetite whose operation

must have been very extensive, before industry had, as yet, provided a supply for the wants and necessities of mankind.

'The traditional tales (*sgeulachdan*) of the Highlands contain many curious particulars, tending to illustrate the custom and usages of chivalry, and the peculiar cast of manners which that singular institution produced in the nations of Europe.——It is to be wished that those precious, but mutilated relics, of antiquity, were rescued from that tide of oblivion which is advancing towards them with rapidity, and, in a short time, must cover and conceal them from our view for ever.' P. 342.

What relates to the canal in the latter essays we have already noticed, in our review of Dr. Garnett's Travels. We cannot conclude without expressing our highest approbation of the spirit and good intentions of this society, and trust that their very useful activity will not be remitted.

*The History of the Helvetic Confederacy. (Continued from
Vol. XXIX. New Arr. p. 249.)*

THE second volume of this interesting work opens with an account of the Burgundian war, which was followed by those against Suabia and Milan. The origin and progress of the Reformation occupy two chapters, to which succeeds a statistical view of the cantons, bailiwicks, and allies. The successive disturbances at Geneva in the eighteenth century form the subject of the ninth chapter, and the tenth and last narrates the dissolution of the confederacy by the invasion of the French, who in a few weeks subdued a country formerly esteemed invincible; thus adding a prodigious force of opinion to the power of their arms, though at the expense of equity, and perhaps of justice.

As the events of the first part of this volume are pretty generally known, we shall pass them rather cursorily, in order to reserve more space for the recent incidents which are sometimes referred to; materials not generally known, and become the more interesting, in consequence of their assuming the clear and concise form of concatenated history. The close connexion cemented between Swisserland and France in the fifteenth century we should have expected to have seen more fully illustrated; nor does the author display much critical skill in his selection of facts and events; a conduct which constitutes the very essence of classical history. Trifles are often intermingled with important affairs, equally to the embarrassment of the narrative and of the reader. Excellent histories have indeed appeared of various kinds and descriptions, but principally of two alone: first, those in which the author,

anxious to illustrate an obscure or neglected period, collects every authentic fact, even though he sometimes appear hereby tediously minute, merely in order that no particle of existent truth may perish, and that complete and veritable materials may supply any future general historian with the means of selection and combination, so as to present a history at once authentic and elegant. In such a work, refinement, and what the painters call disposition of parts, must often be sacrificed to the labour of antiquarian research, and to the anxious desire of preserving *all* the sum total of authentic information. The second general classification of history selects only the more grand and striking circumstances that occur, with their causes and consequences, which the genius of the author arranges in the most eloquent and interesting manner, so as to afford the reader a perpetual recurrence of entertainment and delight. Among ancient examples, the History of Dionysius Halicarnassæus may be alleged as a specimen of the former division, and that of Livy of the latter. It is evident from the plan and manner of Mr. Planta's work, that he has attempted the second of these two orders of history; and though genius cannot be imparted, yet he ought either to have followed its rules of graceful selection and combination, or have given his work the more humble title of annals.

The spirited defence of the Swiss against the power of the House of Burgundy constitutes one of the brightest periods of their history. We shall not repeat the battles of Granson and of Morat, but transcribe the decisive contract of Nancy.

' In the first days of the following year he returned with a body of upwards of fifteen thousand men, and resolved to attempt the deliverance of Nancy. Charles was advised to desist voluntarily from the siege, and to wait for the return of spring; but his own impetuous temper, and the insidious councils of the Condottiere de Campobasso, who commanded the Neapolitans in his army, induced him to reject this salutary advice, and on the morning of the fifth of January (the last day of his eventful life) he marched his army, perishing with cold and hunger, to meet the approaching enemy. He took post about two miles from Nancy, in a hollow near a stream, and placed thirty cannon to defend the only pass through which an attack might be apprehended. His infantry stood in close array, covered at each wing by the cavalry, commanded on the right by the perfidious Campobasso, and on the left by Joffe de Lalain. Two Swiss adventurers, who on account of some misdemeanor had been banished their country, and were now serving in the army of Charles, went over, and offered, on condition of being restored to their native privileges, not only to impart to their countrymen the order of battle of the duke, but also to conduct them, along secret paths, to the most vulnerable part of his array. This offer, which at Mor-

garten would probably have been rejected, was now readily accepted: a large body of duke René's army was led round the fortified pass, through the half frozen stream; and, dividing into two columns, the one commanded by the duke, and the other by the brave William Herter, fell unawares upon the flank and rear of the Burgundians. No sooner did these hear the sound of the Swiss bugle horn, and perceive the intention to surround them, but they crowded still closer, and turned their cannon towards the approaching enemy. They soon found, however, that it was impossible for them to use their artillery without evident danger to themselves. The confederates began the attack with their usual impetuosity, and made a deep impression on the disordered ranks. Charles sent to Lalain to hasten to their relief; but his men seeing the carnage that already overspread the field, betook themselves to flight, and dispersed among the mountains. The duke upon this resolved to engage in person. He rushed among the combatants with the fury of a lion, and slew many with his own hand; but most of his people, especially the cavalry, having now forsaken him, and seeing himself entirely abandoned, he determined to consult his own safety, and rode full speed towards the road that leads to Metz. Being hard pressed by his pursuers, he attempted to leap over a ditch; but his weary horse being unable to clear it, they both fell into the trench, and here Charles met his fate from hands unconscious of the importance of the life they were abridging. After having been some time missing, his body was found among other dead in the ditch, and conveyed to Nancy. His head is said to have been cloven asunder, and he had two other wounds, each of which was mortal. He was interred with solemn pomp at Nancy; but seventy-three years after, his remains were transferred to Bruges, to be deposited in the same tomb with those of his daughter Mary. Most of the Burgundian nobility, who had not fallen at Granson or Morat, were here either killed or taken; and a third Burgundian camp became the prey of the victorious enemy.' Vol. ii. p. 38.

We may also be allowed to select from the fourth chapter an instance of democratic injustice.

'A tragical incident, which happened soon after at Zurich, while it afforded a memorable instance of the instability of human affairs, might also have served as an early caution against the pernicious tendency of the foreign connections which began now to prevail, and the fatal consequences of a people interfering in the administration of justice. John Waldman, whom we have seen at the head of the main body of the confederate army at Morat, was a native of a small village near Zug, and came in his early youth to Zurich, where, being wholly destitute, he engaged to learn the trade of a tanner. The vigour of his mind, as well as the comeliness of his person, however, soon raised him from this lowly condition, and enabled him to distinguish himself in the military career, in the ser-

vices both of his country and of foreign princes. He was knighted at the battle of Morat, and since that had risen gradually at Zurich even to the high station of burgomaster. His influence throughout the confederacy became so great, that all foreign kings, princes, and states, who had any object to pursue with the cantons, had recourse to him; and according to the practice now prevalent, secured his interest, and that of his subordinate agents, by ample pensions and gratuities. This unexpected rise, and the support he experienced from abroad, soon produced the effects which so uncommon an aggrandizement seldom fails to operate; great arrogance and pertinacity, and an haughty deportment in the aspiring magistrate; and much envy and malevolence on the part of the ancient families, who bore with impatience the supremacy of one whom they had formerly seen in one of the lowest stations.

Pretences were not long wanting for giving a full scope to the adverse passions which the fortunate burgomaster had excited. The senate of Zurich, alarmed at the progress luxury had evidently made, since the influx of riches brought from the Burgundian war, had issued various sumptuary decrees, which the more distinguished citizens, and especially their wives and daughters, the clergy, whose morals had yielded to the contagion of the times, and the profligate of all classes, thought oppressive and derogatory. To these were soon after added other regulations concerning the monopoly of salt, the right of hewing timber, and even a prohibition to keep dogs in the farms, because they had in some instances injured the vineyards and molested the game: all which alarmed the lower classes, and the latter, particularly the peasantry, and excited them against the burgomaster, to whom all these innovations were gratuitously ascribed. The peasants were the first who openly resisted the execution of the decrees; and when, through the interposition of some of the most discreet among the magistrates, they were nearly pacified, Waldman incautiously revived their indignation, by declaring to them that, being all vassals, or rather predial slaves, purchased by the city, they had no right to arraign the orders of the magistrates, or any ways to impede their execution. Secure in the prevalence and firmness of his power, he repaired with some friends to Baden, to partake of the amusements of that gay city; and there, in his unguarded moments, held a language respecting the affairs of his canton, which even those best inclined in his favour knew not how to justify. His numerous enemies at Zurich did not fail to avail themselves of his absence, and of these indiscretions, to excite an odium against him, which all ranks were now well disposed to admit; and their success was such, that when Waldman, being apprized of the clamours raised against him, returned privately into the city, he found a defection which he was ill prepared to encounter. A general insurrection soon broke out among both the citizens and peasants, which neither the burgomaster, nor several deputies from the confederated states, who had been sent on the occasion, knew how to allay.

On the first of April the tribes assembled, and Waldman repaired to each of them separately, and attempted to persuade them of his innocence, and of the necessity of restraining the unruly spirit of the peasantry. His enemies, perceiving that he was gaining ground, suddenly called together the senate, which his office obliged him to attend. Here the deliberations were soon interrupted by a riotous multitude, who demanded the persons of the burgomaster and some of his adherents. These being delivered to them, the multitude proceeded to depose the senate, and to appoint a new magistracy, which, from its callous severity, was called the *Horny Senate*. Before this tribunal Waldman was charged with various plots against the state, and, in particular, with a design to surrender the city to the emperor; and though no proof could be adduced of these accusations, yet so much were people's minds prepossessed against him, that orders were given to extort a confession by the torments of the rack. These he firmly bore during three days, without acknowledging any guilt; but whilst his judges were deliberating concerning the sentence, a messenger came hastily, and reported that the emperor had crossed the Rhine, and was in full march towards the city. Waldman's doom was now pronounced: he was led out of the town, and publicly beheaded. He purposed to declare his innocence on the scaffold, but was prevented by the persuasion of his confessor, who it was since suspected had been gained over by his enemies. No sooner had his head been struck off, but the magistrate who attended the execution declared to the assembled multitude, that they need be under no apprehension concerning the Imperial forces, there being no truth in the report of an invasion. Many saw now through the malicious artifices which had impelled this distinguished character to his final destruction; and several of his enemies soon after expiated their treachery by capital punishments. Vol. ii. P. 49.

The valour of the Swiss continued to shine with peculiar lustre in their conflicts with the Suabians; and the event terminated in giving additional firmness and consistency to the confederate powers. The wars with the Milanese are of less consequence; but even the battle of Marignan, in which the Swiss were defeated, impressed all Europe with a supreme idea of Helvetic valour. In Mr. Planta's account of this memorable engagement we could point out some mistakes; but the topic would not be interesting to our readers.

The author thus introduces the account of the Reformation.

Of the inconsistency of human nature no instance more striking and extravagant can perhaps be given, than that men, who in general are sufficiently remiss in the performance of their religious duties, should yet, whenever the mysteries they profess to believe are controverted or denied, not only most willingly, but often with impatient ardour, sacrifice their lives and fortunes in support of

them; and that the measure of their zeal should for the most part be proportionate to the abstruseness or fallacy of the tenets which are the fond objects of their bigotry. While this may be viewed as a matter of mere surprise, or perhaps commiseration, it must be seriously lamented that a mistaken fervour for the glory of God should at any time have become the cause of bloodshed, cruelty, and a variety of atrocious crimes; and that in particular the Christian dispensation, the distinguishing characteristic of which is peace, forbearance, and good will to all, and which, among innumerable obstacles, rose by the patient resignation and heroic self-denial of its first votaries, should at any period have fomented and authorised cruel persecution, relentless war, and irreconcilable enmity. Such a period is now at hand, when religious dissensions unsheathed the sword, and gave rise to animosities and calamities, which for many years perplexed and tormented a large portion of the human race; and armed men against each other, who, had they been influenced by the charity which was the basis of their faith, would have reconciled their jarring opinions with soothing toleration, and left the world at peace.' Vol. ii. p. 120.

Among the charges against the Roman catholic clergy in Switzerland, we find false miracles, the wounding of adversaries even in churches, walking the streets by night, and insulting the inhabitants, and even that some of the houses of the canons were converted into brothels, to the great loss of the licensed brothels of the towns. The term Huguenots, Mr. Planta ingeniously, and we believe truly, derives from the Swiss term *eignots*, which was given to the protestant friends of freedom in Geneva, itself a corruption of the German *eidgenossen*, which signifies confederates. The origin and progress of the Reformation form an interesting portion of the work, which we must, however, pass over without further notice, for reasons already assigned. The war with the peasants in the middle of the seventeenth century, which terminated in their defeat, forms a curious feature in the history of this pretended *republic*. Under the democratic governments of antiquity the slaves sometimes rebelled; but it would be difficult to recollect a similar example, except during the oppression of the Roman senate. The war with the abbot of St. Gallin was not finally appeased till the year 1718; but as Mr. Planta considers it as the 'last gradual step towards the final settlement of the Helvetic constitution,' it follows that the French have destroyed no very ancient fabric.

The statistical view of the Helvetic confederacy presents few features which are not familiar to our readers, from the pages of Coxe. The aristocracy of Berne our author attempts to defend, because it is ancient. By parity of reasoning we should continue the slaves of the Normans, and should, in the

spirit of the constitution, have imported fresh breeds to maintain the race of our conquerors. The antiquity of abuse is the most inconsequent of sophisms. Every thing in nature, physical or civil, is in a state of perpetual and unavoidable change, and the essence of government consists in its adaptation to the existing state of the people. We by no means allude to the idle theory, that a republic is the best form for a refined and corrupted nation, but only insinuate that administrations ought to be assimilated with the period to which they belong; and that even allowing they might be stern and tyrannic in a dark and barbarous age, it is by no means a sufficient argument why they should be the reverse at an epoch of opposite character. Mr. Planta is, however, constrained to acknowledge, that the aristocracy of Berne, by the gradual diminution of the patrician families, tended towards an oligarchy, confessedly the worst form of government which can be exhibited.

The various disturbances at Geneva, in the course of the eighteenth century, Mr. Planta inclines to ascribe to the activity and ingenuity of the inhabitants. In general such events are frequent in democracies, where the factious change the government, while, under a monarchy, they would only change the ministry. This stability, this absolute security of person, property, and inheritance, will ever, in the eyes of candid observers, afford a cogent reason in favour of mild hereditary monarchy. The commotions of Geneva have been wittily compared to a puddle in a tempest; nor can even the genius of Rousseau render them interesting; and it is no wonder that Mr. Planta has fallen into tedious minuteness. But the tyranny of the aristocracy of Berne cannot be better illustrated than by the detail here given of Henzi's conspiracy in 1749; and our author has unwittingly presented the best apology that could have been offered for the French invasion.

We now arrive at the last chapter, which contains an account of the dissolution of the confederacy by the French arms. Mr. Planta's reasonings on the causes of the French revolution we shall not stop to examine. He proceeds to state the consequent change of public opinion in some parts of Switzerland, and the treatment of the Swiss troops in France, which amounted to eleven regiments, or about 14,000 men. One of these regiments being suspected of favouring the aristocrats, was surrounded by the Marseillais, at Aix in Provence, and surrendered without a blow. The slaughter of the Swiss guards at the Thuilleries forms a more impressive circumstance; and many who were taken captives were afterwards massacred on the second of September. Instead of reflecting that some French regiments had also been disarmed, and that the slaughters of September chiefly involved multi-

tudes of French, our author affects to consider it as almost incredible that Swisserland should have preserved her neutrality. Certainly there is here a singular confusion of ideas; for these men were neither dismissed nor slaughtered as being natives of Swisserland, nor as being subject to the Swiss government, but, on the contrary, from long residence in France, and from being in the pay of that country, are to be considered as Frenchmen engaged on the side of a vanquished faction. Had they been French troops, of equal fidelity to the ancient government, their fate would have been equally certain; nor could those events excite the just enmity of the Swiss rulers any more than if their troops in France had been swallowed up by an earthquake. When Mr. Planta, therefore, holds out the neutrality of Swisserland as an argument to display the shocking injustice of the French country towards that country, the fallacy is open to every reader of common discernment, who will rather incline to impute the Swiss neutrality to the secret consciousness of the rulers, that their abusive monopoly of power had alienated the hearts and hands of the great mass of the people. That the Swiss aristocracy would otherwise have cordially joined the coalition, we are little inclined to doubt. We have repeatedly execrated the conduct of the French towards this unhappy country, not as a political question between the French rulers and those of Swisserland, but because what might have been effected by an embassy, by menaces, by advancing an army to the frontiers, was cruelly completed by conquest, by rapine, by the effusion of a great quantity of pure and innocent blood.

Our author then resumes the consideration of the progress of disaffection in the Pays de Vaud. His chain of ratiocination we cannot always discern; and while he blames the Swiss for their neutrality, we should, on the contrary, infer, that if they had joined the coalition, their country would at an earlier period have become a province of France, instead of remaining, as now, a separate and detached power, which may eventually gather together the fragments of former fame, and resume the dignity of an ancient seat of virtue. Mr. Planta also, in this chapter, frequently deserts the sober strain of history for the rant of panegyric, and the accusation of an adversary. Nor can we help smiling at the declaration, p. 392, of a Bernese statesman, that, if Swisserland had entered into the coalition, it must have proved fatal to the French republic! Nationality and patriotism are very different things. Could this *intelligent* statesman seriously imagine that a power which baffled all the troops and tactics of Austria, Russia, and Prussia, the obstinacy of the Dutch, the ardour of the Italians and Spaniards, and all the gold of England, would have yielded to a few train-bands from Swisserland, who would, in truth, have

been unfelt, unnoticed, invisible, amid the confluence of more important powers?

Before the conclusion of the treaty of Campo Formio in the Friuli, Mr. Planta informs us, Buonaparte annexed a considerable part of the Swiss dominions in Italy to the Cisalpine republic; and that able general is loudly blamed for his neglect of the Swiss rulers, when he was magnificently treated by them in his passage through their country. The fact is that *he knew them*, and was not so weak as to be dazzled with plausible appearances in situations in which he was aware their heart was with his opponents. We shall not follow Mr. Planta's steps in the minute circumstances which preceded this revolution. His want of candour blazes forth so conspicuously in p. 408, as to blame a Swiss professor for publishing a work tending to political reformation; while, with far more justice, might he have censured the selfish rulers, who had alienated the minds of the people, and thus kindled the conflagration that ensued. It was natural that Berne should take the lead in the opposition to the French. After vain negotiations, the French army, under the command of general Brune, amounting, according to our author's computation, to not less than 40,000 men, entered Switzerland, and most of the subsequent events are familiar to our readers. Mutinies and desertions among the Swiss troops forcibly bespeak the defects of the government, which could scarcely, it seems, overawe the timidity of unarmed peasants, and was totally incompetent to controul the decision of men accoutred for war. The events, of what Mr. Planta styles the last day of the confederacy, in March, 1798, are thus detailed.

‘ On the fifth, at one in the morning, general Rampon, who commanded the French on the right of their army, began a cannonade against, and soon after attacked, the posts at Laupen, Newe-neck, and St. Gines. He not only experienced a vigorous resistance, but was even repulsed at the latter place. The other posts, indeed, yielded a-while to superior numbers; but, being reinforced by fifteen hundred men, they renewed the action with an ardour worthy of the glorious times of the confederacy. They rushed headlong among the foe, and in a short time compelled them to re-pass the ravin of Newe-neck, and to retreat near ten miles, with the loss of two thousand men, and the whole of their artillery. The Berners lost about eight hundred men in this encounter; and among the slain were found several women, who scorned to shun the perils to which their fathers, husbands, friends, and countrymen, exposed themselves. This victorious column was now preparing to advance towards Friburg, when the events of the day, in another quarter, retarded its progress; and colonel Graffenried, who had fought with

a heroism worthy of the old Helvetians, received orders, about three o'clock, to desist from all further hostilities.

About five in the morning of this eventful day, general Schawenburg attacked on a sudden the front and each flank of the post of Frauenbrunnen; the place where, in a horrid night, the Berners, above four centuries ago, had defeated the Cambrian Ap Griffith, and his terrific English bands. Two thousand horse assailed the Swiss, who had no cavalry to oppose; and what galled them far more, a numerous train of horse artillery, the first that had ever passed their frontiers, spread death and dismay throughout their ranks. The fierceness of the resistance was unexampled. Women, endeavouring to obstruct the effect of the artillery, are known to have placed themselves before the mouths of the cannon, and to have hung on the wheels, in order to impede their progress. The diminished bands, seeing themselves on the point of being surrounded, fell back to the village of Urteren, where they stood a second conflict. Unable, however, to maintain themselves, they took post at the Grauholtz, an almost impenetrable pass, about four miles from Berne, where, their right being covered by a rock, and the left by a swampy wood, they hoped effectually to secure themselves by an abbatis in front. The struggle had been no where so obstinate, nor the carnage so great, as at this post. At length, however, an opening having been made in the abbatis by the artillery, and a party of the enemy having climbed up the rock, and turned the right flank of the Bernese infantry, they found this post no longer tenable. They fell back, but formed anew, and stood a fourth attack about a mile behind this last station; and, notwithstanding their heavy losses, and their being exhausted with fatigue and want of sustenance, they yet fought a fifth time before the gates of Berne. Men, women, children, and the cattle grazing on the meadows, fell promiscuously by the bayonets, sabres, and cannon of the invaders: yet these victims belonged to a people who are said to have called in a foreign power to free them from the tyranny of an oppressive government.

Berne throughout this awful day heard the incessant roar of cannon and musketry from various quarters, and saw the last disastrous conflict under its own walls. No preparations whatever had been made for the defence of the city. Horror and despair seized all the inhabitants. In this extremity the new regency, in its last agony, demanded a capitulation, or rather a safe-guard against the licentiousness of the victorious soldiers; and in the evening the city surrendered, without any terms but a mere gratuitous promise of protection for the persons and property of the citizens. A tree of liberty was soon after planted in the presence of general Brune. Frisching, although president of a new provisional regency, yet a silent mourner over the calamities of his country, officiated at the inauguration. "There," said he, addressing the French general,

"there is your tree of liberty: may it bring forth wholesome fruit!"

About noon, when all hopes were relinquished by the terrified regents, they dispatched the fatal order to the divisions at Newe-neck and Gumminen to abstain from all further hostilities. Some of these brave, and on that very day victorious, men, retreated to the city, and others bent their way towards their homes in the Oberland. The latter, frantic with rage and despair, fell upon their officers, slew their two adjutant-generals, Croufaz and Gumoens, and throughout the evening an epaulette was considered as a death-warrant. Among these leaders were also Steiguer and Erlach. The former, in disguise, and amidst intoxicated soldiers, peasants, and even parties of light troops of the enemy, reached the lake of Thun on foot. Extreme lassitude compelled him to seat himself on the trunk of a tree, and there he slept a while. He then found means to cross the lake, and, still unknown, escaped the frenzy of the enraged villagers, and reached at length the canton of Underwalden; but he did not think himself secure until he entered the gates of the Austrian town of Bregenz.

The fate of the unhappy Erlach was still less propitious, unless indeed he would have deemed it a calamity to survive the downfall of his country. A considerable number of arms, some artillery, and ample stores of ammunition and provisions, together with a treasure of about one hundred and sixty thousand pounds sterling, had, early in this year, been sent into the impregnable retreats of Hasli and the Oberland, as a depôt, in case of emergency. Thither Erlach resolved to speed his way, still hoping that he might collect a force sufficient to preserve some remnants of the now shattered republic. Being arrived at Mufingen, about midway between Berne and Thun, he was recognised by some straggling soldiers, who immediately seized, tied, and placed him on a cart, meaning to convey him to Berne; but another party of infuriated soldiers and peasants soon after met the escort, fell upon the unhappy victim, and, amid horrid screams and execrations, struck him with their hatchets and bayonets, and dispatched him. His wretched widow escaped a similar fate merely by a stupor, which for a time bereaved her of her senses. She took refuge in a solitude at the upper extremity of the lake of Thun. The assassins having, on the following day, been interrogated concerning the motives of this atrocious deed, owned that some Frenchmen had shewn them letters, which they assured them came from Erlach, in which he promised to betray his country, and to facilitate the defeat of his army. Mr. Mallet du Pan asserts this fact on indubitable authority, and at the same time records many instances of the devoted heroism of individuals, and especially of women and young girls, who fell in the several encounters. A senator blew out his brains rather than survive the freedom of his country; and, upon the whole, nothing appears

more evident, than that the fall of the confederacy can by no means be ascribed to the degeneracy of the people.' Vol. ii. P. 427.

The new constitution established by France divided the whole country into twenty-two departments, each of which was to send four senators and eight counsellors to the legislative assembly. Geneva was united to the French republic. The opposition to this constitution caused a farther vain effusion of blood, and many disgraceful levies of money were raised by the French, and transported to Paris, instead of being distributed, as humanity would naturally dictate, among those who were personally injured in the struggle. This unhappy country has now suffered for a considerable time most heavy contributions, the loss of all its arms and artillery; and is still subject to the quartering of a considerable French army, and a government merely nominal. All this we deplore, yet we cannot applaud Mr. Planta's judgement for the large extract, p. 457, from the forged apology of Carnot, the production of some intriguing emigrant. Mr. Planta's work concludes with the suppression of an insurrection in the Underwald, and the entrance of the Austrians into the Grison country, since which the victories of the French have completely retained Switzerland in quiet subjugation.

Upon the whole, notwithstanding the faults, of which we have given a few specimens, Mr. Planta has in this publication made an acceptable present to the public. As a foreigner, he has exhibited a meritorious acquaintance with the English language, and has expressed himself in a style at once neat, clear, and perspicuous; and though the high praise of an historian be difficult to attain, yet, the work before us reflects considerable credit on his abilities.

Odes of Anacreon, Translated into English Verse, with Notes.
By Thomas Moore, Esq. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Stockdale. 1800.

THE playful simplicity which characterises Anacreon's muse (or the poems which are published under his name) operates with winning charms on every one who has sufficient taste to admire the genuine effusions of the heart. He is almost the only poet of antiquity who, in descanting on the passion of love, does not offend the chaste by gross voluptuousness of language. In the libidinous province of Ionia, the gentler sex were regarded by their admirers as sensual mistresses rather than mental companions, as affording amusement for a licentious hour, rather than as confidential associates in the soberer joys and sorrows of life. These considerations tend to increase our admiration of the refined taste of Anacreon, which prompted him to turn with disgust from topics 'gross in nature,' and

enabled him to exhibit in his writings warmth of description corrected by the lurking sensibilities of genuine taste.

To the possession of genuine taste alone we ascribe the delicacy of Anacreon's compositions; not merely from the consideration of the state of society in which he lived, but also because we seldom or never find in his verses any evidence that he was swayed by the more refined and dignified feelings of human nature. His love is in fact sensuality, chastised indeed, but not chastised by moral sentiment or affection. An union of minds enters not into his catalogue of amatory requisites. If he meet with a black-eyed and full-bosomed beauty he is satisfied. He never pre-supposes any reluctance on the part of the fair one. As far as his odes are an indication of his history, the ladies always welcomed him with a *si libet licet*. Hence we find not in his poems any of those affecting expressions of the solicitude of uncertain hope, or the melancholy of despair, which give such interest to the love-songs of later ages. But though the circumstances of the times excluded him from this fruitful field, so vivid was his imagination, and so discriminating his taste, that his odes, which were probably at first regarded as merely the transient ornament of the festal hour, have survived the wreck of empires, and been presented to successive ages as models of transcendent excellence.

The Bacchanalian effusions of the bard of Teos have rarely been equalled, never excelled. He has so skilfully kept in the back ground the rude and swinish attendants of the jolly god, that he fully exemplifies the truth of Mr. Burke's famous observation that 'Vice with her deformity loses half her horrors.'

A good translation of the works of Anacreon has long been a desideratum in English literature. We are happy to declare it as our opinion, that by the volume now under our consideration this desideratum has been ably supplied. Mr. Moore seems to have a clear perception of the peculiar graces of the original, and has not been unsuccessful in transfusing them into his native language. His versification is at once polished and easy; and he has imitated, as far perhaps as it was possible in a translation, that concise simplicity of phrase which renders the odes of Anacreon so attractive.

In an introductory dissertation, Mr. Moore recites the few and doubtful particulars left upon record concerning the history of this celebrated son of the Muses. In the following passage he gives a just and elegant sketch of his character.

'To infer the moral dispositions of a poet from the tone of sentiment which pervades his works, is sometimes a very fallacious analogy: but the soul of Anacreon speaks so unequivocally through his odes, that we may consult them as the faithful mirrors of his heart. We find him there the elegant voluptuary, diffusing the seductive charm of sentiment over passions and propensities at which rigid

morality must frown. His heart, devoted to indolence, seems to think that there is wealth enough in happiness, but seldom happiness enough in wealth: and the cheerfulness with which he brightens his old age is interesting and endearing; like his own rose, he is fragrant even in decay. But the most peculiar feature of his mind is that love of simplicity, which he attributes to himself so very feelingly, and which breathes characteristically through all that he has sung. In truth, if we omit those vices in our estimate which ethnic religion not only connived at, but consecrated, we shall say that the disposition of our poet was amiable; his morality was relaxed, but not abandoned; and virtue, with her zone loosened, may be an emblem of the character of Anacreon.' P. 10.

Mr. Moore's criticism on Anacreon's writings is judicious and elegant; and his account of the imitators of the Teian bard is amusing. The dissertation is closed by a statement of the different editions of his works, from which Mr. Moore has selected, as his text book, that published by Spaletti at Rome in 1781, annexing hereto a fac simile of the Vatican MS. of the original odes.

In the arrangement of these odes Mr. Moore has adopted the Vatican order. But for the convenience of those readers who are not possessed of Spaletti's edition he has added to his work an index, in which he refers each ode to the number under which it is ranked in the common editions. We shall now proceed to lay before our readers some specimens of the manner in which Mr. Moore has executed his undertaking.

Ode VIIIth in the Vatican MS.—XVth Barnes.

' I care not for the idle state
Of Persia's king, the rich, the great!
I envy not the monarch's throne,
Nor wish the treasur'd gold my own.
But oh! be mine the rosy braid,
The fervor of my brows to shade;
Be mine the odours, richly sighing,
Amidst my hoary tresses flying.
To-day I'll haste to quaff my wine,
As if to-morrow ne'er should shine;
But if to-morrow comes, why then—
I'll haste to quaff my wine again.
And thus while all our days are bright,
Nor time has dimm'd their bloomy light,
Let us the festal hours beguile,
With mantling cup and cordial smile;
And shed from every bowl of wine
The richest drop on Bacchus' shrine!
For death may come with brow unpleasant,
May come when least we wish him present,
And beckon to the fable shore,
And grimly bid us—drink no more!' P. 40.

On examining the original, the scholar will find, that to the couplet

‘ But if to-morrow comes, why then—
I’ll haste to quaff my wine again,’

Anacreon has no claim. It is entirely the offspring of Mr. Moore’s imagination. But it is so much in the style of the jocund minstrel, that were he to fit in judgement upon it, we may almost presume he would approve of its insertion.

Ode XVth in the Vatican MS.—IXth Barnes.

‘ Tell me, why, my sweetest dove,
Thus your humid pinions move,
Shedding through the air in showers,
Essence of the balmiest flowers?

Tell me whither, whence you rove—

Tell me all—my sweetest dove.

Curious stranger! I belong

To the bard of Teian song;

With his mandate now I fly

To the nymph of azure eye;

Ah! that eye has madden’d many,

But the poet more than any!

Venus for a hymn of love,

Warbled in her votive grove,

(’Twas in sooth a gentle lay)

Gave me to the bard away.

See me now his faithful minion:

Thus with softly-gliding pinion,

To his lovely girl I bear

Songs of passion through the air.

Oft he blandly whispers me,

“ Soon, my bird, I’ll set you free.”

But in vain he’ll bid me fly,

I shall serve him till I die.

Never could my plumes sustain

Ruffling winds and chilling rain,

O’er the plains, or in the dell,

On the mountain’s savage swell;

Seeking in the desert wood

Gloomy shelter, rustic food.

Now I lead a life of ease,

Far from such retreats as these;

From Anacreon’s hand I eat

Food delicious, viands sweet;

Flutter o’er his goblet’s brim,

Sip the foamy wine with him.

Then I dance and wanton round

To the lyre’s beguiling sound;

Or with gently-fanning wings
 Shade the minstrel while he sings :
 On his harp then sink in slumbers,
 Dreaming still of dulcet numbers !
 This is all—away—away—
 You have made me waste the day.
 How I've chatter'd !—prating crow
 Never yet did chatter so.' P. 61.

This ode is exquisitely translated. The rigid critic will not pass unnoticed the diffuseness with which Mr. Moore has rendered

Πεπρακε μ' ἡ Κυθρη
 Λαβῶσα μικρον ὕμνον.

The second line of the couplet

' On his harp then sink in slumbers,
 Dreaming still of dulcet numbers !'

has not the shadow of an archetype in the original : but he who can condemn such a beauty must have a frozen heart. It is certainly conceived and expressed in Anacreon's best manner,

Ode XXII in the Vatican MS.—XXth Barnes.

' The Phrygian rock, that braves the storm,
 Was once a weeping matron's form—
 And Progne, hapless, frantic maid,
 Is now a swallow in the shade.
 Oh ! that a mirror's form were mine,
 To sparkle with that smile divine ;
 And like my heart I then should be,
 Reflecting thee, and only thee !
 Or were I, love, the robe which flows
 O'er every charm that secret glows,
 In many a lucid fold to swim,
 And cling and grow to every limb !
 Oh ! could I, as the streamlet's wave,
 Thy warmly-mellowing beauties lave,
 Or float as perfume on thine hair,
 And breathe my soul in fragrance there !
 I wish I were the zone, that lies
 Warm to thy breast, and feels its sighs ;
 Or like those envious pearls that show
 So faintly round that neck of snow,
 Yes—I would be a happy gem,
 Like them to hang, to fade like them ;
 What more would thy Anacreon be ?
 Oh ! any thing that touches thee.
 Nay, sandals for those airy feet—
 Thus to be press'd by thee were sweet !' P. 92.

On this ode Mr. Moore makes the following judicious remarks.

‘Ogilvie, in his essay on the lyric poetry of the ancients, in remarking upon the Odes of Anacreon, says—“In some of his pieces there is exuberance and even wildness of imagination; in that particularly, which is addressed to a young girl, where he wishes alternately to be transformed to a mirror, a coat, a stream, a bracelet, and a pair of shoes, for the different purposes which he recites—this is mere sport and wantonness.”

‘It is the wantonness however of a very graceful muse—*ludit amabiliter*. The compliment of this ode is exquisitely delicate, and so singular for the period in which Anacreon lived, when the scale of love had not yet been graduated into all its little progressive refinements, that if we were inclined to question the authenticity of the poem, we should find a much more plausible argument in the features of modern gallantry which it bears, than in any of those fastidious conjectures upon which some commentators have presumed so far.’ P. 92.

We think Mr. Moore has transgressed the licence with which all translators must be indulged, of presenting the spirit rather than the letter of their original, in his version of these two lines.

Εγω δ' εσοπίρον εινυ

Ὅπως αει βλεπης με.

‘Oh! that a mirror's form were mine,
To sparkle with that smile divine;
And like my heart I then should be,
Reflecting thee, and only thee!’

Had he stopped at the end of the first couplet, his version would have been exact and elegant. The two last lines contain a conceit better adapted to the epigrammatic muse of modern Italy than the natural and simple style of the Grecian bard: and the expression *be reflecting thee* is by no means consonant to the general polish of the translator's diction.

We have taken the liberty of making these remarks, not with a view of depreciating the general merits of the work before us, or of irritating its author by trifling objections to passages which have perhaps cost him much reflection and pains: but to show that we have not inattentively perused his verses, and that our opinion may have the more weight with the public when we recommend this translation as enlivened by the spirit of the Teian muse, as chaste, elegant, perspicuous, and lively.

Mr. Moore's notes are appropriate and instructive, and his exhibition of parallel passages is made with temperance and judgement. The work is neatly printed, and ornamented by three engravings executed by T. Nugent.

The Anacreontics which Mr. Moore has written in allusion to the frontispiece of this volume prove that he has touched the Grecian lyre till he is at length able to handle it with a master's ease.

Essays on Gothic Architecture, by the Rev. T. Warton, Rev. J. Bentham, Captain Grose, and the Rev. J. Milner. (With a Letter to the Publisher.) Illustrated with ten Plates of Ornaments, &c. selected from ancient Buildings; calculated to exhibit the various Styles of different Periods. 8vo. 8s. 6d. Boards. Taylor. 1800.

AS we are far from being slaves to what a French author has justly styled '*le petit goût de comparaison*,' we have ever regarded what is commonly denominated Gothic architecture as a grand and beautiful variety, not to be estimated by a comparison with the Greek, but by the peculiar impressions and sentiments which it is calculated to excite. We therefore see with pleasure the present collection of the best essays which have hitherto appeared on the subject.

'The want of a concise historical account of Gothic architecture has been a just cause of complaint: the subject is peculiarly interesting to every Englishman, as his country contains the best specimens of a style of building not unequal in grace, beauty, and ornament, to the most celebrated remains of Greece or Rome. This style of architecture may properly be called English architecture, for if it had not its origin in this country, it certainly arrived at maturity here; the science and taste of our forefathers being equally conspicuous with their piety and liberality. On this subject, England must be considered as a country, for it was under the Saxon dynasty this style of building was introduced, and under the Norman dynasty it received its ultimate degree of beauty and perfection.

'To remedy this want of a convenient manual on this interesting subject, it appeared best to collect what had been already said by several authors of celebrity, in detached works, and which had been received as authorities. In this view, the Rev. Mr. Bentham's Essay on Saxon and Norman Architecture, in his elaborate History of Ely Cathedral, stood foremost for selection, arrangement, and accurate discrimination of historical facts: next to this, Captain Grose's Preface on Architecture to his Antiquities of England is to be valued; which, although founded in a great degree on Mr. Bentham's opinions, yet contains some new points and authorities; in particular, his copious notes will be found very interesting, and containing nearly all that has been said by sir Christopher Wren on the subject, which, being dispersed through many pages of the Parentalia, could not be given as a regular narrative. The

concise history by professor Warton, in his notes on Spenser's *Fairy Queen*, has received too much applause to be neglected; his words, though few, are important on the subject. To these the liberality of the Rev. Mr. Milner has allowed me to add, for the gratification of the public, the history of the origin and progress of the pointed arch, lately published by that gentleman, in his learned work on the *History and Antiquities of Winchester*. He also has been pleased to superintend the selecting of the series of examples on Plates VIII. IX. and X. which tend strongly to corroborate the opinions he maintains.' P. iii.

The editor proceeds to offer some remarks on the term Gothic architecture; but when he proposes to substitute the progressive terms of Saxon and Norman, he forgets that these kinds of architecture are to be found almost over all Europe, and the appellations of course become improper, as they refer to one country only. Mr. Taylor might also have recommended many other books on Gothic architecture, besides those he has published himself—a recommendation which will often be attributed, perhaps, to self-interest, and which, in reality, carries too much of such an appearance along with it. The work, moreover, would have been improved, if a catalogue of the best books on the subject, English and foreign, had been subjoined.

It is unnecessary to dwell on the able essays inserted in this publication, which have already passed the ordeal of criticism, and been favourably received by the professional world. We shall only observe that their republication is judicious and accurate; and shall now proceed to the consideration of the few parts of the present work that are original.

To the preface succeeds 'Observations on the Means necessary for further illustrating the Ecclesiastical Architecture of the Middle Ages, in a Letter from the Rev. J. Milner, M. A. F. S. A. to Mr. Taylor.' Mr. Milner proposes to substitute the term pointed style for that of Gothic; but there is, in plain truth, no very positive objection to the adjective in common use. Ignorant minds alone can associate with it the barbarism of the ancient Goths and Vandals, who had apparently no concern in this mode of building, though Mr. Gibbon asserts that a representation of the royal palace on the reverse of a coin of Theodoric is the earliest delineation of the Gothic order. If this be true, the term would be highly just, as Theodoric was king of the Goths. But in a larger and more liberal view, as the Gothic nations and language overspread Europe, on the fall of the Roman empire, and during the period of time when this order was first instituted, there is no great impropriety in applying the term Gothic to the style of architecture in question, as contra-distinguished from the preceding Roman. Mr. Milner can pass no opportunity of blaming the alterations of

Salisbury cathedral. We have had reason to examine that grand fabric with unprejudiced eyes, and can with justice declare that we regard them as real improvements. The sublime effect of the choir is heightened in a very considerable degree by the disclosure of the solemn chapel at the termination, which, with the noble painted window of the resurrection, impresses us now with more awe and veneration than we were formerly accustomed to feel, or, in truth, than we ever remember having felt in any other cathedral. The dim religious light of the chapel adds an effect to the choir, which is altogether indescribable, and which would have delighted Milton, though it may disgust Milner.

The last article in this collection is an extract from Mr. Milner's History of Winchester, concerning the rise and progress of the pointed arch, which he traces from the intersections of two circular arches, usual in the periods preceding the Gothic arch. This opinion he seems to regard as his own, while we recollect having read it in more than one author who has anteceded him. The truth is, that a special work is still wanting on Gothic architecture, and the subject is capable of the widest display of erudition. It should begin with the state of Roman architecture in the fifth century, and then pass on to the Byzantine. As every thing, Arabian, Moorish, or Mahometan, was regarded with an eye of utter abhorrence by the Christian world in its earlier æras, while, on the contrary, the Moors in Spain employed architects from Constantinople to build their mosques and palaces, as we know from their own authentic records, published by M. Cardonne, it is proper to regard the Byzantine empire as the chief source of the barbaric arts of the middle ages. The best painters, sculptors, and architects, of those periods, seem to have been Byzantine, till polite science began to revive in Italy in the fourteenth century. From a learned and profound disquisition, therefore, on the state of the arts at Constantinople, the inquirer would proceed to Venice, a semi-Grecian state in constant intercourse with the Byzantine empire, and imitative of its taste and manners. Thence the transition would be natural to the state of the arts in Italy till the restoration of the style of ancient Greece. A knowledge of the relative situation of architecture in those more illumined countries being thus concentrated, will be found to throw some light upon the same science, as it existed in the more obscure regions of Germany, France, Spain, Great-Britain, and Scandinavia; for in Poland and Russia the forms are rather Byzantine, and often strictly so. As the Netherlands, moreover, established a centre of commerce and arts to the whole of western Europe, the rise and progress of architecture in this country must be examined with great care and assiduity, if we wish to form a sound judgement upon the subject.

*Journal of a Route to Nagpore, by the Way of Cuttae, Burro-
fumber, and the Southern Bunjare Ghaut, in the Year 1790:
with an Account of Nagpore, and a Journal from that Place
to Benares, by the Soohagee Pass. By Daniel Robinson
Leckie, Esq. Illustrated with a Map. 4to. Stockdale.
1800.*

IT appears from the advertisement prefixed to this little work (of which the title-page is sufficiently descriptive) that it was printed from a journal kept by the author when very young, and intended only for the perusal of his brother, who has been induced to publish it from the consideration that, as the route was through a part of Hindustan left blank in major Rennell's map, and asserted to be *little known to Europeans*, the chasm might in some measure be filled by the information which the present volume furnishes.

As the Asiatic territories of our East-India Company (we shall not here inquire on what principles of honesty or justice) are daily becoming more numerous and extensive, the publication of authentic works on the geography, history, and languages of Asia should be encouraged by those who are interested in Indian commerce or politics. The pages before us will be found of considerable utility as well to travellers who may be called to traverse the countries described by our author, as to those who may wish to supply in their closets the deficiencies here enumerated in major Rennell's map.

The work is too concise and short to admit of copious extracts—we shall content ourselves with a few passages which may entertain the English reader, referring the Indian traveller or geographer to the journal itself for minute particulars.

'As I had heard much, and seen nothing, of Merhattah horsemen, I was particular in observing them. They ride with very short stirrups, insomuch that their thighs are in an horizontal position with the saddle, which is made of cloths or silk, according to the ability and fancy of the rider, thickly quilted; and they have a firm seat. Their arms are sometimes matchlocks, with swords and shields, but most commonly the spear, which they use with great dexterity.' P. 4.

In page 7 the following lines (which we suppose are sculptured on the mosque of Jangepore) are in the true style of Eastern hyperbole.

'May the standard of king Aurungzebe be displayed while the world exists!!! The pure Nawaub of high dignity erected a mosque in the town of Jangepore, beyond the power of language to describe, from the dome of whose roof the heavens appear low. Hear, O ye bead-tellers! if you make this place your asylum for a night.'

'It should appear that major Rennell (memoir, second edition,

4to. page 12) is not perfectly clear with regard to the idea he has formed of the Merhattah state, that all the chiefs owe a sort of obedience to the paishwah, resembling that of the German princes to the emperor. The account I heard from the dewaun in the durbar was, "That there is a person whom they call the representative of the rauj, who is kept in the fort of Sattarah, and he is treated with all imaginable respect when he makes his appearance at Poonah, which is only upon particular occasions; and when at Sattarah he is supplied with every luxury, and magnificently attended. On the demise of this image of government, the handsome son of some poor man is chosen to supply his room. The paishwah is prime minister to the Merhattah state; the rajah of Nagpore, &c. commander in chief of the armies; and they, as well as the rest of the chiefs, call themselves servants of the rauj; and none acknowledges the least immediate authority of the paishwah, but they are all bound in cases of necessity to render mutual assistance to each other, for the public good of the constitution." But the fine extensive country which the paishwah occupies, together with the advantage of playing the Sattarah puppet, will always give him influence with the other chiefs.' P. 55.

'A custom prevails in this town, (*Nagpore*) which I cannot forbear taking notice of, because it serves to prove that long usage will give a plausibility to things seemingly the most preposterous. The bramins and best people at Nagpore have women attendants upon their families, whom they breed up from their childhood, and are called butkies, or slauls. They attend on their masters and mistresses during the day-time, and are permitted to go to any man they please in the night; some of them become very rich, and they are in general very handsome fine women.' P. 59.

The frequent occurrence of Indian and Persian words expressed in European characters will embarrass the English reader of this work: the authors or editors of similar publications should explain, by notes or otherwise, such oriental terms as they find necessary to insert. The name of a princess mentioned in p. 11, *Zeebul Nissau*, signifies the ornament of women, or the glory of the fair sex, and is properly written

زيب النساء

The word *kelladaur*, which occurs in pp. 14 and 28, is compounded of the Arabic قلعه *kelbua*, a castle or fortress, and دار *dar* a Persian word, signifying a possessor or holder—i. e. the keeper of the fort.

Cumurbund, in p. 100, is a compound of two Persian words, کمر *cumr*, the waist or middle, and بند *band* or *bund*, signifying that which binds or fastens—a girdle or sash worn round the waist.

Sermons on practical and important Subjects, with a Preface, particularly addressed to Candidates for Orders, and the Younger Clergy. By Philip Henvill. Vol. I. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Egerton.

MR. Henvill's preface consists of no fewer than 137 pages, considerably exceeding one half of those which include the sermons contained in this volume. This fashion of former times, we thought, had been long exploded; and we do not wish for the revival of such a custom. It may be compared to the erection of a large unsightly porch, out of all due proportion to the size of the building to which it belongs.

We pass over the whole of this long preface, so desultory in its composition, and so heterogeneous in its materials (acknowledging, however, that there are to be found in it some useful observations, adapted to the younger clergy, and candidates for holy orders), and proceed to notice the sermons themselves.

In the first of these discourses, 'on the duties of the ministry,' we find a variety of just observations; and the preacher well explains, though with little novelty of illustration, the reason why our Lord chose rather to 'confer the order of the ministry upon the most illiterate of his followers, than, by the appointment of the learned, subject the commonalty to the impositions of the chief priests and scribes, who would have willingly embraced so favourable an opportunity to insinuate among them the idea of some collusion or confederacy, in order to calumniate the character, and depreciate the doctrines of their great master.'

Mr. Henvill very properly pleads for 'a meet and sufficient maintenance' to be allowed to the ministers of the gospel. But, whilst he remarks that this provision is strictly enjoined by the canons of the church, and has been allowed from the first ages of Christianity, we were sorry to find him attempting to rest the argument in favour of tithes not upon the law of the land, nor merely upon examples prior to, or connected with, the Christian dispensation, but even upon the incidental introduction of the *payment* of tithes in our Lord's parable, which contrasts the humility of the publican with the ostentation of the Pharisee! Surely such far-fetched and insufficient arguments only serve to weaken the cause which they are meant to defend!

In the sermon on charity, Mr. Henvill suggests various useful hints. But in this as well as his other discourses we find too loose and unconnected a texture of composition; a want of that *lucidus ordo*, that unity of plan, which connects and embraces the whole of a subject, whilst it excludes extraneous

matter. Thus, we frequently find good ideas interspersed, but they are misplaced, or they might, with equal propriety, be introduced into discourses upon a variety of other subjects, as well as in the places where we happen to find them. This, we apprehend, is a capital defect in composition, and which young, ingenious, and lively writers, ought to take peculiar pains to correct.

The sermons on 'the true character of neighbour,' and 'on slander,' are among the best in this collection. In the former, we find an observation, not, indeed, much to the honour of human nature, but which a knowledge of the world will amply confirm.

'To obtain assistance, in distress, recourse must be had to chicanery and deceit, and those who actually need it, are obliged to assume a state, extremely different from the one they in reality possess.—The appearance of opulence will command that respect, which even a suspicion of penury will effectually preclude.—To discover poverty, is to disclose want; and that is, unfortunately, the readiest and most uncertain mean of continuing in it.—He, whom you call your friend, if he be not inclined to afford the relief you ask, will not be at a loss to devise excuse; and, to the shame of humanity be it alleged, the greater and more urgent the distress, the less, in proportion, will be the probability of removing it.—Such is the perverseness of mankind; and so true is the observation, that "prosperity gains friends, and adversity tries them."

P. 93.

In the sermon 'on slander,' our author justly remarks,

'It is no excuse for any one to allege that "he meant no harm."—It affords but little retribution to the party injured; and is an evident demonstration of ignorance in the other!—Is it not the part of a madman to express himself without thought?—A fool, indeed, may deny the existence of the Deity: and, as the Psalmist observes, may say "in his heart, there is no God."—But will any person, capable of reflection, make the same declaration?—What!—Is it no harm to tamper with, and to injure, the reputation of another?—Or, has he a wish to be discredited in his assertions?—Does he mean to calumniate his neighbour, or to belie himself?—If neither be his intention, he must be a knave, to speak without meaning; or absolutely an idiot, not to discover that one or the other must unavoidably be the consequence of his folly and indiscretion!' P. 111.

With these specimens and remarks we will dismiss the volume, only observing, that, though the sermons are not excellent, there are many detached parts which are entitled to commendation.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

RELIGION.

Family Sermons. By the Rev. E. W. Whitaker. Vol. III. 8vo.
6s. Boards. Rivingtons.

THESE are plain moral discourses; but the preacher unfortunately introduces the mention of the events that have lately taken place in France, and thus frequently weakens those arguments which, sanctioned by examples from the scripture, would have made a forcible impression on every mind. The controversy on the future punishment of the wicked meets with little quarter; and the grounds of this controversy seem to have been very little studied by this preacher, who hazards an observation that must not pass unnoticed.

‘ To avoid the force of this last text, and others of like meaning, we are sometimes boldly assured, that the word rendered everlasting, should not be so understood. Yet is the same term used to express the never-failing existence of God himself, as in the sixteenth chapter of the Epistle to the Romans, “ according to the commandment of the everlasting God.” And this very evasion seems to be guarded against in the scriptures, not only by the circumlocutions employed on this head, when the place of torment is described, as that where their worm dieth not, and their fire is not quenched: but by its having been specifically declared, that the bodies of the dead shall be raised incorruptible; and each of the future states shall be unchangeable. In the former of these points, we are instructed by St. Paul, in the fifteenth chapter of his first Epistle to the Corinthians; and the last our Lord hath taught us in the parable of the rich man and Lazarus. Now surely, if the subjects of punishment be to exist for ever, and yet, when once placed in the torments to which they are condemned, never change their state, it must be something more than folly to deny, that their punishment shall be everlasting.’ P. 212.

The question is, whether the state is unchangeable? The fire not quenching, or the worm not dying, may not imply that the persons should remain subject to an endless torment of fire, or the eternal gnawings of the worm. To attribute something more than folly to those who deny the punishments of the wicked to be endless, is an unjustifiable sentiment, since many pious and learned men have entertained the opinion which this writer wishes to confute; and he

has by no means brought convincing arguments in favour of his own position. He attempts also to increase the horror of the future state of the wicked by exhorting us to picture 'to ourselves a vast abyss, whose utter darkness will be interrupted, not relieved, by the blue glare of sulphureous flames; whose unmeasured concave will resound with ceaseless cries of misery, cries not of a nature to excite compassion, but to raise horror.' But surely this is a vain attempt. The joys of the future life are not to be described to human conceptions, even by the testimony and language of an apostle; and to paint the woes of the condemned without sufficient grounds from scripture, is more likely to excite a smile at the painter, than true feelings of the misery of vice. The writer does not often offend in this manner. He is, in general, plain, rational, pious. He does not aim at any elegance of style, or beauty of composition. We observe in his discourses no grandeur of expression, no novelty of sentiment. Our views of scripture are not enlarged, nor are any difficulties in the interpretation of it solved. Yet to those who are fond of moral essays, and plain descriptions of nature, when they are animated by a few scriptural observations, these sermons may afford both entertainment and improvement.

A Disputation in Logic, arguing the moral and religious Uses of a Devil. Book the First. By George Hanmer Leycester, A. M. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Egerton.

On the political and moral Uses of an Evil Spirit. By George Hanmer Leycester, A. M. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Egerton.

When the schoolmen were in fashion, and no one was esteemed a scholar who was not perfectly acquainted with all the barbarous terms of their logic, this work would have afforded great amusement to the younger disputants. But times are altered; and pompous words are no longer considered as proofs of learning, wit, or sense. The greater part of our readers will not understand what is meant by the following passage; and such as understand it will be satisfied with such a specimen of the work, and leave the writer to his own conceits.

'Now, reader, if you have any thing to object to this, pluck out the spiggot of taciturnity from thy fosslet dialectical, to speak with the orators, and into my vessel auricular tun me thine opinion through the funnel of fermocination.' Book ii. P. 62.

In this style the whole work is written. It abounds with proofs of the author's reading and learning in the groves of Academus: it may excite occasional laughter, and may be thought excellent by some logical students; but the writer must content himself with the admiration of the select few, and the pleasure which he enjoyed in this mode of composition.

Sermons, for the Use of Schools and Families. By John Napleton, D. D. &c. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Sael and Co. 1800.

These are plain discourses, suited to the end which the writer had in view. The subjects are taken from the creed, the commandments, the Lord's prayer, the sacraments; and some discourses on detached topics are added. The families which follow the good old custom of reading a sermon every Sunday evening may derive from this work an useful fund for meditation and instruction.

A brief View of the Necessity and Truth of the Christian Revelation. By Thomas Hartwell Horne. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Sael and Co. 1800.

This is, as the title intimates, a brief view of Christianity; but its brevity is a recommendation; and it may be made very useful in the hands of a judicious person to counteract the effects on young minds of the feeble and superficial arguments of modern infidels. We were sorry to see the work injured by a reference to the supposed 'miracles performed after the apostolical ages; particularly, the casting out of dæmons or evil spirits by Christians.' The reality of these miracles being much questioned, it was unnecessary to offer this opportunity of cavil to the unbeliever, as the truth of the gospel does not stand in need of such fragile supporters.

L A W.

Thesaurus Juridicus: containing the Decisions of the several Courts of Equity, upon the Suits therein adjudged, and of the High Court of Parliament upon Petitions and Appeals: to which are added, the Resolutions of the Barons of the Exchequer in Matters touching the Revenues of the Crown: from the Period of the Revolution to the End of Easter Term 1798; systematically digested. By Richard Whalley Bridgman, Esq. Vol. I. 15s. Boards. Brooke and Rider.

The author of this work begins his preface with remarks on the utility of such compilations, and supports his opinion by citing the authority of some learned lawyers. There can be no doubt of the abstract truth of the proposition; but, since the times of Hale and Jenkins, the deficiency of which they complained has, in a great measure, been supplied by Viner's elaborate Abridgement, the Digest of lord chief baron Comyns, the Abridgement of Bacon, the subsequent additions to those voluminous repertories, and the accurate labours of various modern reporters, and editors of reports. Mr. Bridgman, however, has supposed that his work will be acceptable to the members of the profession; and we shall therefore extract the outline of his plan, as given in some passages of the preface.

'The compiler has opened the reporters at the period of our great and glorious revolution; and confining himself in the first instance to the decisions in equity, he has abstracted the several cases, and

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placed them under such heads or titles as a professor would most naturally consult for information, and to which they particularly belong, so as to form a general and copious index, exhibiting at one view the substance of the several cases, and the judgments of the courts thereon, omitting only the argumentative parts; for this compilation is not intended as a copy of the several books of reports, but as a key or guide to those authors to whom we are indebted for handing down to us this portion of useful knowledge, and from whose writings fuller information may be obtained, whenever the subject of inquiry is sufficiently interesting to invite a more profound research into the reasoning of the matter.

‘ Having digested the several cases, and placed them under their respective titles, the compiler’s attention was in the next place paid to the order of time by which the progress of the courts in the gradual administration of justice most regularly appears.

‘ The compiler is aware, that by preserving the order of time all the cases upon the same points do not always immediately follow each other, yet as they are all comprehended under the same title, are so shortly stated, and for the most part are connected by references, the reader’s attention (it is presumed) will not be so materially diverted from his object by the intervening cases, as to render it essential to interfere with the progressive order of the adjudications.

‘ The system of arrangement pursued in this compilation is that which was recommended and adopted by the great English philosopher Mr. Locke, which regards the initial letter of each title as the first object, and the vowel immediately following as the conductor to the point in question, (ex gr.) to search for Abatement see A—a, for Bond see B—o, for Charity see C—a, &c. &c. &c. In the margins are placed the names of the principal cases, with those of the authors by whom they are reported, (printed in italics by way of distinction,) the periods of adjudication; the synonymous cases, and such as are referred to, not in argument but for the most part in the determinations only; and especial care has been taken to notice particularly in their places all such cases as have been questioned, doubted, denied, or controverted; but inasmuch as some determinations among the multitude (though not absolutely denied) may appear not consonant with the living law, the compiler has pointed out the distinctions drawn by the most judicious and intelligent editors in their annotations.

‘ The appendix is so disposed as to be not only an index to the following sheets, but a general repertorium. The cases are arranged in double order, both by the name of the plaintiff and defendant, unless where the king or his attorney-general is plaintiff; and in such cases the defendant’s name only is used. The appendix will point out the names of all the authors by whom each case is reported, the period of adjudication, and the title, section, and placitum under which it stands in this compilation.

'To most of the principal cases the compiler has annexed (in the margin) the names of all the authors by whom they are respectively reported, for the convenience of those gentlemen who may have only a partial collection of books, and may live at a distance from any public library; but as in some instances (among the references) he may have omitted to notice by whom cases are reported, he begs leave to refer the reader to the appendix, where he will find the information desired, if the cases sought for have been reported at any time since the revolution.' P. iii.

'The arrangement of this particular department of the *Thesaurus Juridicus* (in which the latest editions of the several reporters have been consulted, including the abridgment of cases in equity since the revolution) comprehends the determinations as well in the high court of parliament upon petitions and appeals, before the king in council, in the court of delegates, and in the duchy chamber, as in chancery and exchequer; such cases as have been adjudged in parliament, and in the exchequer chamber upon writs of error, are reserved for the department of the common law.

'It was not the compiler's original intention to have introduced into the equity division of this work such cases as have been determined in the court of exchequer touching the revenues of the crown, but to have reserved them also for the common law division. Those cases however are so intermixed by the exchequer reporters with the decisions on the equity side of the same court, that he was induced to open a head of revenue, for the reception of the several resolutions on that subject, with a hope at the same time materially to ease the common law department, which will unavoidably become very copious from the abundance of matter which it must necessarily embrace.' P. v.

To the compiler's plan we perceive no objection; and where the task is so mechanical, there seems no impediment to its being correctly performed; but Mr. Bridgman and his publisher ought to have considered how far, even under these circumstances, the present is calculated for competition with the prescriptive authority of the other compilations to which we have alluded.

M E D I C I N E.

On Madness. By J. Johnstone, M. D. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

'Our author has collected a valuable and useful 'compendium of the doctrines of insanity,' or perhaps, in more strict language, has ably described the symptoms of the disorder, particularly as it is connected with jurisprudence and the criminal actions which madness may suggest. We have read his little work with great pleasure, and can recommend it as containing, in a plain, judicious, and unobtrusive form, much useful information.

Medical Jurisprudence ; or, a Code of Ethics and Institutes adapted to the Professions of Physic and Surgery. 8vo. Not Sold.

For this excellent work we are indebted to a most respectable veteran in medicine, and we trust we do not improperly betray the confidence reposed in us when we mention the name of Dr. Percival. We mention the name and we notice the work merely to express our wishes for its completion. What was designed for a beloved son may be finished for younger medical students, the author's adopted family.

The first section is 'on professional conduct relative to hospitals or other medical charities;' the second, 'on professional conduct in private or general practice;' the third, 'on the conduct of physicians towards apothecaries.' These sections form a very valuable supplement to Dr. Gregorie's Lectures on the Duties and Qualifications of a Physician, and deserve unqualified commendation. The fourth section treats 'of the knowledge of law requisite for physicians and surgeons;' and in a fifth it was proposed to treat of the powers, privileges, honours, and emoluments of the faculty; in a sixth, of the moral, religious, and political character of physicians; and to subjoin to the whole notes and illustrations. The unhappy event we have alluded to, has, for a time at least, prevented the author from proceeding beyond the fourth section: we trust the work will be soon resumed.

'A Discourse addressed to the Gentlemen of the Faculty, the Officers, the Clergy, and the Trustees of the Infirmary at Liverpool, on their respective Hospital Duties, preached in May, 1791, before the Governors of the Institution for the Benefit of the Charity, by the Rev. T. B. Percival, LL. B.' is subjoined as a very suitable and proper appendix.

From this pamphlet we might have transcribed many useful and interesting passages; but what the author chose to confine to a circle of friends, it was improper in us to give to the world.

On the Necessity for contracting Cavities between the Venous Trunks and the Ventricles of the Heart; on the Use of Venous Sinuses in the Head; on the wonderful Provision made for the Transition from the Fatal to the Breathing State; on Palpitation; on Death; and on Life: with Reflections on the Treatment of Animals. By John Walker. 8vo. Darton and Harvey.

We find it impossible to give any account of the contents of this strange little pamphlet. We scarcely see any thing new in it; and if there be one idea which has the slightest claim to novelty, it is buried in the incomprehensible jargon of the whole. The theses at the end were intended as preparatory to taking a degree of doctor of medicine at Leyden, and the English work as the basis of a thesis; but, from the title-page, the plan seems never to have been carried into execution. It is well known that the publication of opinions under the title of Theses is not sufficient to obtain the title of doctor in any Dutch university.

Some new Experiments, with Observations upon Heat, clearly shewing the erroneous Principles of the French Theory. Also, a Letter to Henry Cavendish, Esq. containing some pointed Animadversions; with Strictures upon some late Chemical Papers in the Philosophical Transactions, and other Remarks. By Robert Harrington, M. D. 8vo. 3s. Cadell and Davies.

In the infancy of Dr. Harrington's labours and supposed improvements we declined any examination of them, for this reason, that we understood but a small part of his work, and what we did understand was clearly erroneous. At present we comprehend his meaning more completely; for

Gutta casat lapidem, non vi, sed sæpe cadendo.

We are not, however, more disposed to engage in the discussion; for, though his observations be occasionally acute, his ideas in general are so strangely perverted, that we must first render his system intelligible before we could examine it: we must make the man of straw before we could attack it; and we fear that we might not construct it to his taste. We shall therefore leave his labours to be appreciated in the approaching century, remarking only that there seems to be an incipient coalition between him and Dr. Priestley. The latter, having opposed phlogiston, appears more gracious in the eyes of our author: and, in one or two places, there seems to be an effort towards a compliment. Of all coalitions, this is the most extraordinary: this is indeed the age of wonders!

EDUCATION.

Of Education founded upon Principles. Part the First. Time; previous to the Age of Puberty. By Thomas Northmore, Esq. 12mo. 2s. Reynolds. 1800.

The principles on which this system of education is founded are to give the child a sound mind in a sound body. That the body may be sound, he is to be nourished by his mother's milk, is not to suffer in his limbs by unnatural swaddling clothes or tight ligatures, and when he can use his limbs is to do every thing possible for himself. This last is, says the author, the great principle of early education; and it is certainly a very desirable attainment: but it is remarkable that the writer, who reprobates in many respects our great schools, has not reflected on their advantage in this respect. Where is this principle put in practice so well? When the boy has left his paternal roof, whatever may be his rank, whatever may have been his indulgence at home, all cease at Eton, Winchester, Harrow, Westminster, and indeed in almost all our larger seminaries. The boy must act for himself; and some perhaps on the continent may be inclined to think that we carry this principle too far. Few situations indeed give the opportunities which this plan proposes—that the boy is to have his wheelbarrow when his father's land is

underdrained, is to sow seeds and dig trenches with him ; but it certainly might be deemed of some advantage if our boys could be instructed a little more than they are in manual arts and useful labours. On going to bed and rising early most people in this country agree ; and in our schools the practice is uniform. If we are desirous of giving a boy a firm and collected spirit, public schools have in this point the superiority over private education ; and to encourage the detestation of falsehood they are perhaps peculiarly adapted. Hence we do not see much proposed in one part of this work that is not in general practice in our country. Women for the most part suckle their children : these last are loosely clothed ; they run about freely, and are accustomed to the air : they have sufficient experience to shift for themselves in public schools. On learning to read, it is proposed that the boy should teach himself to spell by spelling two or three words that he has read ; and thus he will daily improve in the art, and rejoice in the improvement. This ought to be done, and is, we suppose, done by all teachers, for they lose a great opportunity if they do not, at the close of every lesson in reading, desire the children to spell some words contained in it. To learn a foreign language, the boy is to be carried into the country where it is spoken ; and this is, we doubt not, the best method : but, as few boys can have this advantage, we must be content with the inferior modes of receiving instruction. Translation and re-translation are recommended : this we remember was the plan at our grammar school, and is in general adopted in others ; and we must here join our wishes to those of the author, that the tiresome mode of teaching Latin and Greek, by labouring through the rules of grammar, may be disused, and that the masters of great schools would condescend to ask of those persons who have learned a considerable number of ancient and modern languages, what progress they should have made if they had learned by heart in each the rules of its grammar. On school correction it is in vain to argue against the generally received notions, equally injurious to delicacy and to the spirit of honour which should be so carefully cultivated in early life. Those who teach the arts of dancing and of fencing do not flog : why should the doctor in divinity and the christian divine be armed with so much terror ? Literary discussion and moral conversation are other helps recommended for the child's education ; but men in active life have not leisure to put this in practice before each child, and perhaps the conversation of children at school will be more instructive to them than that of men four times their age. On the whole, though we approve many things recommended in this scheme, and esteem the pains bestowed on the subject highly praiseworthy, we do not think the author has sufficiently discriminated between the advantages and disadvantages attending a private and a public education : he has not adequately considered the feasibility of some of his maxims. By his plan, each parent would be sufficiently occupied by a single child ; and, with all the appear-

ance of attention to nature, there is more danger that the child would enter into life a made-up artificial boy, than if he had been, as is very much the case in England, left to his own nature and the correction of it by himself in a public school.

L'Art de parler et d'écrire correctement la Langue Française, ou Grammaire philosophique et littéraire de cette Langue, &c. Par M. l'Abbé de Lévizac. Seconde Edition.

The second Edition of Lévizac's Art of speaking and writing French with Accuracy, or philosophical and literary Grammar of that Language. 8vo. 6s. sewed. Dulau. 1800.

When this grammar first appeared *, we recommended it as a work of great merit, though capable of improvement. It has since been enlarged and altered in a manner which reflects credit on the writer.

Traité des Sons de la Langue Française, &c.

A Treatise, by M. Lévizac, on the Sounds of the French Language, followed by Remarks on Orthography and Punctuation. 8vo. 2s. Dulau. 1800.

This is a proper companion to the grammar of the same author.

A Guide to the Study of the History of England. In a Series of Questions upon Goldsmith's Abridgement. By M. Florian. 12mo. 1s. Newbery.

These interrogatories, put to young persons who have read the epitome of Goldsmith's History of England, will not only teach them to treasure up in their minds the chief incidents and most memorable transactions, but will enable them in some degree to argue or reason upon the different particulars. The questions terminate with the year 1790.

A brief Account of the Life and Writings of Terence. For the Use of Schools. 8vo. 1s. White.

The writer of this manual observes in his preface, that school-boys, by being acquainted with the history of the authors whom they study, will feel themselves more interested in the perusal of their works. For the benefit of the youthful student who is entering on Terence's comedies, he has collected the scanty particulars which are now known of the life of this friend of Scipio and Lælius. To his biographical sketch he has prefixed some observations on the nature of comedy, for which he acknowledges his obligations to Dr. Blair; and he has extracted from Colman's preface and notes a few remarks on each of the plays of Terence which have survived the hand of Time.

* See our XXIII^d Vol. New Arr. p. 346.

P O E T R Y.

Sans Culotides : By Cincinnatus Rigshaw, Professor of Theophilanthropy ; Member of the Corresponding and Revolutionary Societies ; Brother of the Rosy Cross ; Knight Philosopher of the Order of Illuminati ; and Citizen of the French and Hibernian Republics. 4to. 5s. sewed. Chapple. 1800.

This publication, as its title imports, contains a violent attack upon the phalanx of incorrigible jacobins—that redoubtable body which has so long haunted the visions of ministerial declaimers of all ranks, from the polished orator of St. Stephen's to the rude historian of the village alehouse. It is dedicated to the people's most excellent majesty, contains two prose essays on political alchemy, imitations of the third, sixth, eighth, and tenth eclogues, and the first, and part of the fourth books of the Georgics of Virgil. The dedication and the essays are written in a style of grave continued irony. Much strength and peculiarity of talent is requisite to maintain an equable degree of spirit in this species of writing through a space of twenty pages in quarto—and these qualifications Mr. Cincinnatus Rigshaw does not appear to us to possess. Accordingly his periods soon become languid, his wit evaporates, and nothing remains in the poetic alembic but a large caput mortuum of dullness. In his imitations of Virgil he has been much more successful. He has travestied the original with a considerable portion of humour. By the magic of his wand, Melibœus and Dæmœtas become Sheridan and Tooke—the precepts of husbandry are transmuted into lessons of sedition ; and Aristeus, complaining to his mother of the loss of his bees, is metamorphosed into Charles Fox bewailing to Mrs. Windfor the loss of his political credit. Mr. Rigshaw's versification is here melodious and manly, and proves that he possesses powers which would secure him no small share of applause, were they employed in the composition of legitimate satire. We are sorry to observe such respectable talents prostituted to the odious task of heaping abuse upon the remnant of opposition. Abuse, indeed, so completely sullies every page and every paragraph of this work, that we could not extract a single passage but is poisoned by its virulence, and are compelled therefore to taciturnity and regret. It may nevertheless be perused with no small pleasure by staunch believers in the profligacy of every one who differs in opinion from his majesty's present ministers. We beg leave to assure them that its author inflicts on Mess. Fox, Sheridan, Smith, &c. &c. an unrestrained portion of poetic flagellation ; and that if a work of parallel merit were published on the other side of the question, it would have no small chance of attracting the attention of the attorney-general.

We cannot but think Mr. Rigshaw unfortunate in having selected as a subject of ridicule the humane exertions of sir Francis Burdett Jones to procure an inquiry into the state of Cold-Bath-Fields' pri-

son. It is impossible to read the report of the late traverse jury for the county of Middlesex without a strong suspicion that much misconduct, and many instances of cruelty, have been exhibited there: and a benevolent lamentation over the miseries of those who are stated to have endured an illegal aggravation of confinement would have discovered a better heart than the present misapplied caricature. The attention of ministers themselves, however, is now turned to this important subject; and we trust that no political considerations or secret influence will induce them to withhold the retribution which, on a cool and impartial investigation of facts, shall appear due.

The Mince Pye; an Heroic Epistle: humbly addressed to the Sovereign Dainty of a British Feast. By Carolina Petty Pasty. 4to. 5s. sewed. Kearsley. 1800.

We have experienced considerable perplexity in endeavouring to divine the drift of this poem. Mrs. Petty Pasty's topics are so discordant, and her transitions so abrupt, that we must confess we have been often baffled in our attempts to wind through the labyrinth of her ideas. We find many well wrought couplets, which prove she has a good ear; but for that consistency of plan, in which every part conspires with every part in the promotion of some settled end, we look in vain.

Towards the close of her poem Mrs. Petty Pasty thus personifies the rapacity of France in the character of Soup-meagre, while by an originality, but we cannot say a happy originality of conception, Plumb-pudding and Mince-pye are made the types of British courage and conduct.

' As from the purlieus of St. James's-square
Bright Fashion flies, to charm the modish fair,
And from the flapping of her painted wings
The cap, the robe, pellice, and bonnet flings;
Around with pleasure and applauses loud
The Bond-street swarms in gay disorder crowd,
While volumes of her perfum'd breath disclose
The odours of the jessamine and rose:
The fair creation owns her rougeing reign,
And simple Nature sighs and pleads in vain.
So from the confines of her darling France
The pallid fiend, Soup-meagre, dares advance,
Hors'd on a stock-fish; wide her pinions spread,
And shake down frogs, and herbs, and barley bread:
Beneath those pinions' shade a sickly crowd
Creeps languid, and enjoys delusion's cloud;
Eager to make us quit Roast-beef, and feed
On spinach, cel'ry, and each maukish weed.
Where'er her mess is pour'd, the famish'd train
Longs for content and joy, but longs in vain;

O'er the pale cheek cold-blooded tremors dart,
 Consuming Envy gnaws upon the heart;
 They prowl and long for Britain's solid food,
 Yet dare not own her Beef and Pudding good:
 The hospitable feast in ruin lies,
 And social comfort languishes and dies.
 Lo! where in token of her baneful gripe,
 Signal of famine, flares a rag of Tripe;
 Stew'd to transparency, it flouts the sky,
 And taunts Roast beef with idle mockery.
 Uprearing it aloft, the hungry brood
 Invade the board where late a sirloin stood,
 And, mad with lust of innovation, with
 For conquest o'er each long-establish'd dish.
 When near the meagre host Plum-pudding rose,
 Whose smoking sweets delicious scents disclose;
 Full o'er the board she bad her flavours pour,
 And from her empire drive them back to shore.
 There with malicious hate Soup-meagre spread,
 And scantily surrounding nations fed,
 Deplor'd good-living lost, and fasting moan'd,
 Till, half convuls'd with cholic, Europe groan'd;
 And more had suffer'd yet; but, great in fame,
 Mince-pye appear'd: at his avenging claim
 The soup-devouring bands, aghast, displac'd,
 Fell back, astounded at his conq'ring taste.' p. 28.

Epistle in Rhyme, to M. G. Lewis, Esq. M. P. Author of the Monk, &c. with other Verses, including Stanzas, addressed to Mrs. Jordan. By — Soame, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Lunn. 1800.

In neat and nervous verse Mr. Soame sets forth the praises of M. G. Lewis, Esq. whose productions have of late attracted a considerable share of the attention of the fashionable world. With all the zeal of unqualified admiration he defends this parliamentary novelist against the various attacks which have been made upon him, both with respect to impurity of taste and tendency in his writings. Contrasting Mr. Lewis's celebrated drama with those of several of his contemporaries, the author of this little volume is led to enter his protest against the prevailing rage for naturalising foreign plays and foreign phraseology.

To the epistle are subjoined some shorter poems, each of which bears most satisfactory testimony of Mr. Soame's metrical powers. We doubt not that our readers will be gratified by a perusal of the following translation of the well-known Italian canzonet, which commences with 'Amiam, o bella Iola.'

'To Love, my Laura, let us give
 The little span we have to live;
 Our moments, swift as arrows, fly,
 And wing'd, like them, with destiny.'

'Tis not, 'tis not everlasting,
But to swift destruction hasting,
The pride of youth's elusive hour,
Thy peerless beauty's blooming flow'r.

' Yon orb, that now descends to lave
His axle in the western wave,
The same, or more refulgent still,
Shall rise at morn o'er yonder hill.

' Tho' winter from the woodlands tear
Their verdant spoils, and leave them bare;
Yet these another spring shall view
With fairer foliage cloath'd anew.

' Our "May of life," alone, no more
Revolving seasons shall restore;
And death, o'er man's expiring light,
Lets fall interminable night.

' Once in the "narrow house of clay,"
"To dumb forgetfulness a prey,"
No dreams of joy, no tale of love,
The deep perennial gloom remove.

' Then come, and e'er the stern behest
Of fate forbid us to be blest;
While beauty blooms, and passion glows,
Haste, let us snatch the short-liv'd rose!

' Let doting grey-beards ring in vain
Dull changes on the moral strain;
Their frozen maxims nought avail;
Our hearts repeat a warmer tale.

' To love then, Laura, let us give
The little span we have to live;
Our moments swift as arrows fly,
And wing'd, like them, with destiny.' P. 15.

We have been highly amused with the humorous irregular ode on Kemble's threatened secession from the stage; and not less so with the second epigram, which appears to us to possess uncommon merit.

D R A M A.

The Jew and the Doctor: a Farce, in two Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Thomas Dibdin. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Rees. 1800.

We applaud the discernment of Mr. Bicknell of Norfolk-street, who, as Mr. Dibdin informs us in his advertisement, from being a

casual spectator of the performance of this farce at the Maidstone Theatre, without any solicitation on the part of its author, recommended it to Mr. Harris.

The character of the Jew is well designed, and affords an humorous exhibition of a mind generous, where large sums are concerned, yet parsimoniously scrupulous in the minuter details of gain. The character of the doctor is original: the remainder of the dramatis personæ are not particularly striking, but each promotes the business of the play, and in their intercourse they are thrown into situations sufficiently ludicrous and fanciful. The character of Abednego, the Jew, is developed in the following scene.

‘ SCENE II.—*A Chamber at Abednego's.*

‘ *Enter Emily and Abednego.*

‘ *Abed.* I tell you, ma dear, it's all true, every word of it. Pless ma heart, I'm so happy! I was always happy; and now I don't know whether I stand upon ma head or ma heels.

‘ *Emily.* But, my dear Sir, pray be explicit—inform me more particularly by what means——

‘ *Abed.* Sit down, my dear, sit down. You know I was always mighty fond to take care of de main chance.

‘ *Emily.* But, Sir, the suspense I am in——

‘ *Abed.* Don't mention the expence, my dear; but hear the story. You know, miss Emily, dat I always did every kindness vat I cou'd for you.

‘ *Emily.* Indeed, Sir, you have always been a father to me.

‘ *Abed.* No, ma dear, not always; for I never saw your mother in all ma life.—So, ma dear, I vent to day to make some pargains, mit ma friend Shadrach vat lives o'top of Duke's-Place, and dere I pought this peaudiful ring. Vat you tink it cost me, ma tear?

‘ *Emily.* A great sum, without doubt. But the story, Sir,

‘ *Abed.* Vell, ma tear—I'll tell you—It is a fine tiscovery I have made—it cost me twenty-five guineas, as I am an honest man, every varthing of the money (*looking at the ring*),

‘ *Emily.* No doubt, Sir; but this is cruel.——

‘ *Abed.* I told him so, ma tear; but he wou'dn't take a farthing less. So I was determined to puy it; because it matches exactly mit this jewel, vat I found upon you when you was left at my door.

‘ *Emily.* Ah, Sir, how fortunate! Do you not think that by means of this you may probably trace who were my parents?

‘ *Abed.* Yes, ma dear; I tink myself dat—pless ma heart, it's a creat pity they hadn't always been together—they'd have sold, my dear, for twenty per cent. more, as I'm an honest man.

‘ *Emily.* But, Sir, didn't your friend inform you of whom he bought the jewel—can't it be traced? But you have taken already so much trouble on my account, that——

‘ *Abed.* I cou'dn't take less upon ma vord. I'll tell you now, miss Emily, all vat I know about it. Ven I was in Amstertam, I

took ma lodgings in a creat house vat had just been left by a rich merchant—How much you tink I paid a week for ma lodging?

‘*Emily.* Dear Sir.

‘*Abed.* O, more dear as people wou’d tink. Vel, ma tear, I vas vaken one morning out of my sleep wit de cry of a shild in de passage of ma lodging; and ven I saw it, it look’d for all de vorld so it was an angel—

‘*Emily.* Ah, Sir!

‘*Abed.* So I took it up, and ax’d all over de place whose little shild it vas—All de people he laugh at me, and said vat it vas my own, and I wanted to sheat ’em, and dat I vas a Jew, and wou’d take in te devil; but I told dem I would take in noting but de shild. So I took pity upon you, ma tear, for I remembered ven I vas a poor little poy myself, and sold rollers a top o’ the street.

‘*Emily.* Was there any thing besides the jewel with me?

‘*Abed.* There vas some paper mit your name upon it, which said, this shild is christened Emily—And as for de clothes vat vas mit you, I suppose they wou’d fetch about five guineas, and the basket I sold myself for a rattle out of the toyman’s shop for you—for I always minded the main chance—So I prought you to England, and put you to a Christian school; for, as your father and mother made you a Christian, for vat I shou’d make you a Jew, my tear?

‘*Emily.* How, Sir, shall I ever repay your goodness? Alas! the debt of gratitude commenced with my birth.

‘*Abed.* (*with reverence*) Ma dear, I always minds de main chance. The panker, on whom I draw for payment, is Providence; he placed you in ma hands as a pledge of his favour, and the security is unexceptionable. This jewel, ma tear, is for yourself—it pelongs to the other, the value of which I laid out in merchandises for you, which have prospered. I kept the jewel in ma own hands, to lead to a discovery of your parents; and I expect ma friend Shadrach every moment mit intelligence—den Charles, you know, ma tear, vat loves you so, I expect him too—he tinks vat you hav’n’t got a penny in all de vorld—but I’ve taken care of de main chance.’ P. 8.

Ramah Droog: a Comic Opera, in three Acts, as performed with universal Applause at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By James Cobb, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Rees. 1800.

Ramah Droog is a busy bustling drama, containing a mixture of tragedy, comedy, and farce. The scene is laid in India. This circumstance gives occasion to the introduction of grand machinery, rich dresses, processions, and dancing girls. With the assistance of good music, therefore, we can readily conceive that these attractive adjuncts would ensure it the universal applause with which the title-page informs us it was received at Covent-Garden theatre.

N O V E L S, &c.

Selina, a Novel, founded on Facts. By a Lady. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. sewed. Law. 1800.

In a preface of much modesty and feeling, the authoress of this novel discloses her hopes and fears relative to its success, justly observing that

‘ To aim at excellence, which few who read are able to appreciate, and fewer willing to admit;—to task the imagination to supply incidents, and character, and sentiment, and the judgment to form from these a work, to be read perhaps with listless apathy, and thrown aside with mortifying indifference, are not the least among the discouraging circumstances that a novel-writer, unaided and unknown, must encounter.’

We wish that the writers of novels would more frequently consider these obstacles, and refrain from publication, when they are conscious of not producing to the public either strength of character, or originality of sentiment. The present performance is not entirely free from these deficiencies, but will, upon the whole, be found sufficiently interesting to recompense the attention of the reader.

The Neighbourhood, a Tale. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. sewed. Black and Parry. 1800.

In this work we have rather a collection of characters than a regular narrative, or a tale abounding with incidents. The most prominent character is that of Purfling, a vulgar and illiterate, but opulent tradesman, who retires from business, and becomes a provincial magistrate. Some of the features of this and other characters in the work are sketched in Smollett’s manner, but not with the ability which that writer usually displayed. Under the ludicrous name of Spavin, a clerical jockey is represented, who at length renounces his follies, and ably superintends a school which had been kept for some years by an ignorant adventurer, called Dr. Syllabus. The family of the Tonics are humorously characterised, though the indelicacy of miss Tonic may disgust some readers. Captain Canvass has no original or striking *traits* assigned to him: he is merely a respectable seaman. We do not see the necessity of giving him for a wife the girl who had been seduced under a promise of marriage by Purfling, or of making him adopt her illegitimate child as his son: it was not necessary so far to degrade the captain, though, perhaps, it may be argued that he evinces his humanity as well as judgement in rescuing a worthy woman from a state of dishonour into which she had unguardedly fallen.

Upon the whole, this is an amusing, but not an interesting novel. We smile at various parts of it; but our hearts are not influenced, our feelings are not roused. The style, we may add, is sometimes

affected, and frequently inaccurate. The work seems to have been fabricated in haste; but this, we apprehend, is a very common case with regard to novels, which are too often written *currenti calamo*, and sent to the press without revision.

The Force of Prejudice, a Moral Tale. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Sold by the Author, N° 18, West-street, Soho.

Many of the readers of this novel may be inclined to dispute the applicability of the term *moral*, as a designation of the tale. They will not perhaps allow that a tale is strictly *moral*, which seems to give encouragement to illicit love, by holding out a seduced female as worthy of general respect and esteem. The loss of chastity, indeed, is not the loss of every virtue; and a woman who, in an unguarded moment, has yielded to the force of passion, may sincerely repent of her weakness, and become a respectable and virtuous member of society. But it is not prudent to propagate such a doctrine, as it may render the fair less cautious in their conduct, and less strenuous in repelling the attacks of dishonourable lovers.

The narrative does not abound with striking incidents; nor is it couched in pure or accurate diction: but, with the exception before stated, it inculcates virtuous sentiments and correct manners; and, as it was written in the hope of augmenting the provision for the support of an aged and distressed mother, we recommend it to the notice of our charitable readers.

De Valcourt. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. sewed. Dutton.

This production is a mixture of history and romance, which may be palatable to the taste of subscription readers, but which is not sufficiently stimulant to overcome the critic's disgust at so illegitimate a species of composition.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

Hints for History, respecting the Attempt on the King's Life, 15th May, 1800. Published in the Hopes of increasing the Fund for the Erection of the Naval Pillar. By the Rev. Sir Herbert Croft, Bart. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wright. 1800.

'The merit of such a publication as this (for nothing can be more impudent than to appear before the public without some idea of merit) depends on what is of more consequence than the number of words it contains.' So says our author; but we wish he had told us in what the merit of this publication consists. Every thing that he says of the king has been better said already; and the feelings of the nation would not, if they required any incitement, be moved by so feeble a pen. We are at a loss to discover the intent of this publication, whether it be really to tell the people what they knew before on the attempt against the king's life, or what they did not know, and perhaps did not desire to know, that the king of Sweden made the author a present of a medal, that Sir W. Scott

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was his tutor at the university; that lord Eldon, though the manner of conferring the title is assuredly a bad omen for his lordship, is to be a great man; and to conclude, after a wretched specimen of versification, that

‘ This friend to marriage—I’ll speak out, in spite
Of what he wishes, though whole Grubstreets write;
Of lies republican and atheist tales,
Spawn’d in the jakes and vomited from jails—
The marriage-friend I mean is Britain’s prince of Wales.’

P. 31.

Not having been able to find out the merits of this publication, we are sorry to remark that the words, for their number, are unreasonably expensive. Thirty-two pages, in which the title and a blank page are included, are presumed to be worth one shilling and sixpence.

Selections from the Correspondence of General Washington and James Anderson, LL. D. &c. in which the Causes of the present Scarcity are fully investigated. 8vo. 2s. Cumming. 1800.

Whatever may be the sentiments of posterity respecting the political and military character of general Washington, in private life he must be pronounced unexceptionable: and his calm dignified retirement proves that his mind was truly great and good. In these selections one letter only is of the general’s writing, and relates to the conduct of the French republicans in America, which is reprobated in a manner which no good or well-informed man can disapprove. Dr. Anderson’s reply is, in part, political, and, on the whole, judicious; but he adds to it, what is of much more importance, some excellent and valuable remarks on the present system of agriculture, and the too great neglect of arable husbandry. This is truly alarming, especially when we are told from the highest authority, that more than four millions are spent annually in the purchase of foreign corn.

A Letter to the Right Hon. Lord Somerville, one of the Lords of his Majesty’s Bedchamber, and late President of the Board of Agriculture, with a View to shew the Inutility of the Plans and Researches of that Institution, and how it might be employed in others more beneficial. With Remarks on the recent Communications of the Board, and a Review of the Pamphlets of Arthur Young and William Brooke, Esqrs. upon the present high Price of Provisions. By a Society of Practical Farmers. 8vo. 3s. Cawthorn. 1800.

‘ Were these things so, so were they uttered.’ The ‘practical farmers,’ who we at first suspected were ironical critics in disguise, really deserve the name, and many of their remarks are truly judicious. We particularly approve of their observations on the management of crown lands, the high price of provisions, and various

fancied improvements of the new husbandry; but their spirit of opposition occasionally carries them too far, and they fall into the fault of which they accuse some of the objects of their criticism, viz. resting too much on local observation and experience. On the whole, we would recommend this letter to the dispassionate attention of the president and the board, who might profit by some of their advice. On the other hand, we cannot associate the writers with ourselves, in their review of the communications of agriculture. Their criticism is too obviously partial, and too plainly rancorous.

Recreations in Agriculture, Natural History, Arts, and Miscellaneous Literature. By James Anderson, LL. D. &c. Vol. I. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Wallis.

Dr. Anderson's former periodical work, 'The Bee,' has enjoyed a very favourable reception from the judicious and intelligent reader. It seems to be continued in the present volume; and, though a regularly returning journal is scarcely the object of our review, we cannot refuse that attention to Dr. Anderson, which we have freely paid to Dr. Duncan, Mr. Nicholson, and other editors of medical and philosophical observations. Indeed, where the works are original, the form of publication can be no objection.

These amœnities (for *Recreations* is only a translation of the foreign term so often employed as the title of similar collections) are both scientific and miscellaneous. In each department we are instructed and informed. The introductions to agriculture and natural history, continued through the greater part of this volume, judiciously display the views and objects of each science; and the different papers on the latter subject, for the introduction to agriculture is concluded only in the sixth number, the last of the volume, are well calculated to relieve our necessities, and add to our comforts. Economical regulations are particularly attended to; and the methods of cooling the apartments in hot climates are useful. We read with pleasure the account of Mr. Forsyth's plan of renovating the active spirit of trees, when decayed in consequence of wounds and old age; the investigation of the causes of staggers in horses; the method of extirpating some kinds of caterpillars; and the essay on the varieties of animals. While we mention these particularly, we mean not to exclude many others, which equally merit our attention and praise.

The miscellaneous parts are elegant and humorous. We perceived, or we *thought* that we perceived, a similarity of style through the whole, with two or three exceptions. It seemed to be the lion playing with the kid, rather than roaming the forest with solemn dignity. If we mistake, the error is of no consequence; and Dr. Anderson cannot consider as a disgrace what Addison has often confessedly done. On the whole, we are highly pleased with this collection, and mean to continue our account of its progress, when we

may occasionally enlarge on some parts, as the author, from his extensive connections, will be enabled to render them more interesting. We have forborne to give a fuller statement, as our object is to excite curiosity, not to gratify it; and we have little hesitation in saying, that, in the perusal of this collection, the intelligent reader will not be disappointed.

Reflections on the relative Situations of Master and Servant, historically and politically considered; the Irregularities of Servants; the Employment of Foreigners; and the general Inconveniences resulting from the Want of proper Regulations. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Miller. 1800.

It is said of an old and very respectable prelate, that he was afraid to go home after any visit from the constant uneasiness to which he was subjected in endeavouring to put an end to the quarrels between his old butler and his old housekeeper. The remedy indeed was easy. He might have dismissed one or both; but he had not the courage to send either away. With regard to the mutual complaints of masters and servants, it may be said, that there are good and bad of both parties; and the attempts of the legislature to correct the evils may in some instances do more injury than good. The connexion is a civil contract; and the breach of it can be punished only as in other cases. The master has as much power as ought to be allowed to him. He can dismiss his servant at pleasure; and, when servants have really behaved ill, the want of a character is a sufficient punishment for the crime. In another point we do not agree with the author. He says that it is a scandal for 'ladies who have great assemblies' to be under the necessity of engaging constables to attend at their doors: but the real scandal is in permitting these ladies to have such assemblies, which in fact tend to corrupt servants, and injure the morals, taste, and domestic happiness of the country.

A few Observations on the System of Tactics, laid down in the Regulations for the Formations, &c. of his Majesty's Forces. 8vo. 6d. Bell.

The art of war has undergone a considerable change in the course of the present (the eighteenth) century; and the rapidity of the movements, as well as the extensive line on which they are conducted towards its close, form a striking contrast to the precision and regularity which in the early part of the century distinguished the campaigns of the duke of Marlborough. The great Frederic brought the old system to its utmost perfection; the Austrians adopted it, and have been compelled to change it by the French, who have made as great a revolution in their art of war as in their politics. The English are not very easily persuaded to adopt any improvement; but, when it is once adopted, they carry it forward in general to greater perfection. The writer of these observations wishes to accelerate their motions. He pays due respect to the regulations of

general Dundas; but, in some respects, his system may be improved. With regard to the battalion, he thinks that the drawing-up of three deep might be abolished; that, if the Prussian manœuvres should be continued, every one should be executed in quick time with the cadenced step of one hundred and eight steps in the minute; that the whole British army should, to a certain degree, be made masters of those manœuvres which are at present peculiar to the light infantry. For these improvements he gives cogent reasons, and concludes with requesting that 'one regiment in each district be ordered to try this alteration—in a word, that every man who has troops under his command shall teach them to act with rapidity, and direct their attention to those movements which it is likely they will be called upon to practise.' The observations are written with very good intentions, and deserve the notice of all who are concerned with or are fond of tactics.

A brief Statement of Facts; wherein, several Instances of unparalleled Inhumanity, Oppression, Cruelty, and Neglect, in the Treatment of the Poor, in the Parish of Damerham South, in the County of Wilts, are considered and exposed. By Philip Henvill, Curate. 8vo. 2s. Egerton.

It gave us pain to find, from a perusal of this narrative, that a worthy clergyman, from whose sermons we have derived pleasure, should have found himself so unpleasantly involved in disputes with the farmers, &c. of his parish on the subject of the poor. The statement which he has in this pamphlet submitted to the public, is such as, not only for the honour of Englishmen, but even of human nature, we could have wished to confute; but, when the facts of inhumanity, oppression, cruelty, and neglect of the poor of South Damerham are verified by an explicit publication, to which the name of the resident clergyman is annexed, we cannot doubt the existence of the evils of which he so forcibly complains. Sad must be the lot of the minister in being connected with such unfeeling wretches as those whom he has here deservedly exposed; and still worse must be the fate of those unhappy beings whom the chilling blasts of poverty drove into the poor-house, exposed to the danger of perishing through the inhumanity of those whose immediate business it was to administer relief! As far as we can judge, it appears that Mr. Henvill very properly exerted himself to remedy the evils which so loudly called for redress; and we trust that his efforts, in conjunction with those of the neighbouring magistrates, have procured that amelioration of the state of the poor of Damerham which gentler remonstrances were unable to accomplish.

Select Eulogies of Members of the French Academy, with Notes, by the late M. D'Alembert. Translated from the French, with a Preface and Additional Notes, by J. Aikin, M. D. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

D'Alembert's Eulogies are well known to every person con-

versant with French literature. The author shone equally as a man of science and a man of taste: the soundness of his judgement, the independence of his spirit, and the elegance of his style, qualified him above all his contemporaries to do honour to the French academy in perpetuating the praises due to its members. His eulogies are not to be lowered to a level with those which were delivered from the French pulpits, where the orator was constrained to exaggerate the virtues or extenuate the vices of one over whom fashion or the pride of a court prescribed the necessity of a funeral oration. D'Alembert is paying the tribute due to real genius; and his own genius best discovers itself in the praise or censure which he bestows with impartial hand on the writings or characters of his predecessors. It must, however, be recollected, that he was of the new school of philosophy, and that his disgust at a 'religious system full of tyranny, absurdity, and superstition,' led him to reject that revelation in whose service his talents might, both for himself and his country, have been so worthily employed; but, as the translator justly remarks, he 'deserves praise for having treated religious subjects with more decorum and reserve than many of his contemporaries.' Perhaps we have gone too far in allowing with the translator that he deserves *praise* for this conduct: we would express ourselves in a different manner, and allow that he deserves less censure than the greater part of his contemporaries. On religion and government we can seldom give him any praise; and there are times when, even in his peculiar element, in his criticisms on taste and in his style, we find him open to considerable censure. The translator is sensible of the faults in the style of his author, his frequent prolixity and accumulation of images; and to such a translator we can allow the liberty which he has sometimes taken with the text, and still more with the notes, from which he has with great propriety expunged such matter as is likely to give offence to the English reader.

The eulogies are selected with judgement. Massillon, St. Pierre, Bossuet, Boileau, afford the materials for the first volume; Flechier, La Mothe, Perrault, Fleury, Destouches, Crebillon, for the second. From these eulogies, and the notes on each, an excellent estimate of French literature for the last hundred years may be formed; and, as the translation is worthy of the original, we cannot recommend it too strongly to such of our readers as wish to improve their minds by the judicious criticisms and noble sentiments which abound in this work.

Thoughts on Non-Residence, Tithes, Inclosures, Rare Landlords, Rich Tenants, Regimental Chaplains, &c. &c. &c. By the Author.
8vo. 2s. West and Hughes, 1800.

There is too much truth in the satire conveyed in these pages on many of our non-resident clergy; and it is to be lamented that the task of reclaiming them to their duty has devolved from the bishops to

a lay informer. Exhortations on this head have hitherto proved useless; and the evil seems to have gained such ground as to baffle ordinary remedies. We agree with our author in wishing for the re-establishment of army chaplains, and the reasons for this wish do him honour both as a man and a soldier.

Reasoning from what they ought to be, and what they might be, they are not the useless appendages to an army profligacy and ignorance may have represented, or assumed them. If obliged to attend their duty, they would have it in their power to do much good. They would be a check on the profaneness and ribaldry that often disgrace the society of uneducated military men; and by their admonitions, might diffuse principles of religion where all must own they are sadly wanted. And I will venture to say, that he, who has been taught to fear God more than man, will not make the worse soldier on that account; that he, who hopes for happiness in the next world, will not be the more afraid to quit this. I could give some instances in support of this assertion, (for I am an old man and an old soldier), in a set of men whom I remember more than forty years ago in our army in Flanders; who, to the ridicule of many, would meet to sing hymns in a barn or a sawpit: and those fellows, I will add, were always amongst the first to court danger, and the last to quit their posts.' P. 52.

Biographical Sketches of Henrietta Duchess of Orléans, and Louis of Bourbon Prince of Condé. To which are added, Bossuet's Orations, pronounced at their Interment. Translated from the French. With Select Extracts from other Orations by the same Author. 8vo. 2s. Clarke.

The characters here sketched out are well known to the general reader: the orations are translated with sufficient fidelity; and the remarks on the intolerance of the orator deserve the attention of the true protestant.

Analysis of Horsemanship; teaching the whole Art of Riding, in the Manège, Military, Hunting, Racing, or Travelling System. Together with the Method of Breaking Horses, and Dressing them, to all Kinds of Manège. By John Adams, Ridingmaster. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

This is only the first volume of a work which professes to explain the whole system of horsemanship, and particularly to reconcile the manège with the travelling system. Mr. Adams, in the present volume, has finished only the manège system, and commenced that of military riding. We have perused it with some care, and find the directions clear and judicious. On the whole, we consider this as likely to be a work of considerable utility, and we ardently wish for its continuation.

Human Longevity; recording the Name, Age, Place of Residence, and Year, of the Decease of 1712 Persons, who attained a Century, and upwards, from A. D. 66 to 1799, comprising a Period of 1733 Years. With Anecdotes of the most remarkable. By James Easton. 8vo. 6s. Boards. White.

Mr. Easton informs us, that, in this list of persons, who have attained an extraordinary old age, he has not inserted one instance, of the authenticity of which he had the smallest doubt; but a life doubly extended, beyond that of the oldest man, could not have ascertained one-tenth part of the various facts recorded in this list. Three, at least, we *know* to be apocryphal, and probably many others are equally so. Extreme old age, or the reputation of it, if accompanied with tolerable health, is an excellent mean of support; and many of the 'children of this world' wisely avail themselves of it. The youngest daughter of one of these (the name is recorded) had a child within twenty years of the time she professed herself more than 100 years. Few, very few, have exceeded 100; yet from the cases recorded,

'Of males and females, who lived from 100 to 110 years (both inclusive) the instances have been — — — 1310

above 110 to 120 — — — 277

— 120 to 130 — — — 84

— 130 to 140 — — — 26

— 140 to 150 — — — 7

— 150 to 160 — — — 3

— 160 to 170 — — — 2

— 170 to 185 — — — 3

1712.' P. xvi.

The author's meaning seems, however, to be good; and, if he can irradiate the dreary moments of old age with hope, and if that hope can give pleasure, far be it from us to intercept the gleam.

An Account of the Proceedings of the acting Governors of the House of Industry, in Dublin, for Two Years. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

The frequent endeavours of individuals and of the public to ameliorate the condition of the poor, and inure them to habits of industry, do great honour to the present age; and it is with pleasure we read the accounts of various houses of industry, and the improvements which are gradually made in their management. Among them, this account from Dublin is worthy of notice; and the attention paid to the house by some leading persons in the city, will, we hope, excite a general emulation in their successors to follow so good an example. On the perusal of this statement we were particularly pleased with the allowance of a third of the earnings to the industrious poor, the bestowing of the rewards in coin current only in the house (by which means the earnings are no longer wasted in spirituous liquors, since by shops within the house they

can have every thing that is useful or convenient at little expence), and the printing of the accounts of the house at stated times, so that its improvement or decay may be easily noticed. There are many things also relative to beggars and public kitchens which deserve the attention of the guardians of the poor in many cities, where, from the accumulation of abuses, the poor are wretchedly kept, and their morals increase in depravity.

Address to the Public, concerning Political Opinions, and Plans lately adopted to promote Religion in Scotland, &c. &c. By Robert Haldane, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ogle. 1800.

Mr. Haldane, a gentleman of fortune in Scotland, sold his estate, not to liquidate a debt of honour, for such he never contracted; not to satisfy the demands of creditors, accumulated by extravagance on horses, dogs, carriages, and company, for such he never created; not to engage in lucrative concerns of commerce, for he was contented with his possessions, and was not infected with the lust of gain; not—we might go on with many other reasons for the sale of an estate, but we will omit them for that which may appear singular and capricious to the sons of the world: he sold his estate, that he might have the means of furthering, to the utmost of his power, his own views of the gospel. The love of Christ constrained him, and the act fixed on him calumnies innumerable. He has been represented as an enemy to the establishment of Scotland, and as a jacobin; and, after the most violent insinuations, professor Robison would have given him the satisfaction, as it is ridiculously called, of a gentleman. To vindicate himself from the aspersions cast on his character, and to show, by a candid declaration of his sentiments, that he is not an enemy to any establishment, whether of religion or government, he makes this manly, firm, and serious address to the public. Without entering into his views of religion, we can applaud the disinterestedness of his conduct; without embracing his principles, we can reject the calumnies of his enemies; and, though we have always expressed, and continue to entertain, the greatest contempt for the conceits of Barruel and Robison, we may approve of the exposure here made of the strange inconsistency and credulity of the latter, of which this very respectable writer affords, in his person, a remarkable instance. To all, who have read professor Robison's book, we recommend the correspondence in this volume between the professor, Mr. Haldane, Mr. Somerville, and Mr. Ewing; and the perseverance of these latter gentlemen, in pursuing the professor through all his windings, entitles them to the gratitude of the public.

On selling his estate, Mr. Haldane's intention was to promote the knowledge of the gospel in the East-Indies; but the obstacles arising from our connection with the East, which do no honour to a Christian nation, prevented the execution of this design. Baffled in this respect, he turned his views to his own country, and was very instrumental in forming the society for propagating the gospel at home, and was one of the leaders in promoting the *evangelical* inte-

rest in Scotland. We use the term evangelical, to show the nature of this gentleman's ideas of Christianity, which corresponds with what, in this country, is termed *evangelical*, or *methodistical*. He assisted in the establishment of meetings or tabernacles, and of Sunday schools; and the vulgar language here frequently indulged against methodism accompanied his exertions in Scotland. It was said that his Sunday schools were schools of sedition, and his tabernacles were sapping the foundation of the Scotch establishment. Both of these calumnies he refutes by sound argument, and with a Christian spirit; and some may think that on the accusation of sedition he goes too far, as he inculcates implicit obedience to the powers that be, and denies to the Christian every sort of interference with political government.

On the whole we must acquit Mr. Haldane of any ill-designs against either church or state. He exerts himself with ardour in the cause of religion, for which he is to be highly commended; an ardour, indeed, that is seldom to be found in the higher classes of society. The necessary effect of an establishment in all countries is a relaxation, in course of time, from its first principles; this will excite men of warm tempers to endeavour to recal it to its original institution—hence, a struggle will arise between the two parties, which, if conducted on Christian principles, would tend to the advantage of both. The excessive zeal of the one would be moderated, the coldness of the other would be animated. The cause which this author has undertaken is increasing very rapidly both in England and Scotland, and, since the established churches in both countries regard it with an unfavourable eye, it becomes a more interesting subject to enquire into its merits and demerits. For the credit of the church of England it has not used such violent and intemperate language as we have seen, with astonishment, issuing from high authority in the northern parts of the island, and we shall hope that the contest in this country will be conducted upon better principles: that the clergy here will examine minutely into the pretensions of their brethren the evangelical preachers, compare them with the word of truth, and, by an active and zealous inspection of their flock, secure it from every real contamination and disease. The rules of the society for propagating religion at home, given at the close of this work, are of a similar tendency with those adopted by the evangelical ministers in England.

ERRATA.

IN OUR LAST VOLUME,

P. 410, l. 4, for *particular* read *practical*.

P. 412, l. 3, for *tout-dominant* read *sous dominant*.

Ibid. l. 6, for *short* read *sharp*.

IN OUR PRESENT VOLUME,

P. 70, lines 9 and 11 from the bottom, dele *Dr*.

